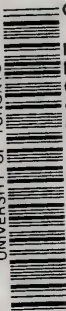


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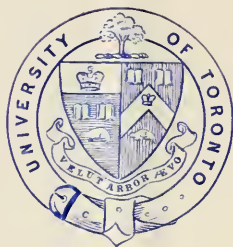
EDUCATIONAL TRIPS

LEADING-YOUTH

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CHAMBERS'S EDUCATIONAL COURSE

LEADING EVENTS
IN
ENGLISH HISTORY

ADAPTED TO THE
REQUIREMENTS OF THE EDUCATION CODE

BY

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W. & R. CHAMBERS
LONDON AND EDINBURGH
1880

478767
7.9.48

Edinburgh :
Printed by W. and R. Chambers.

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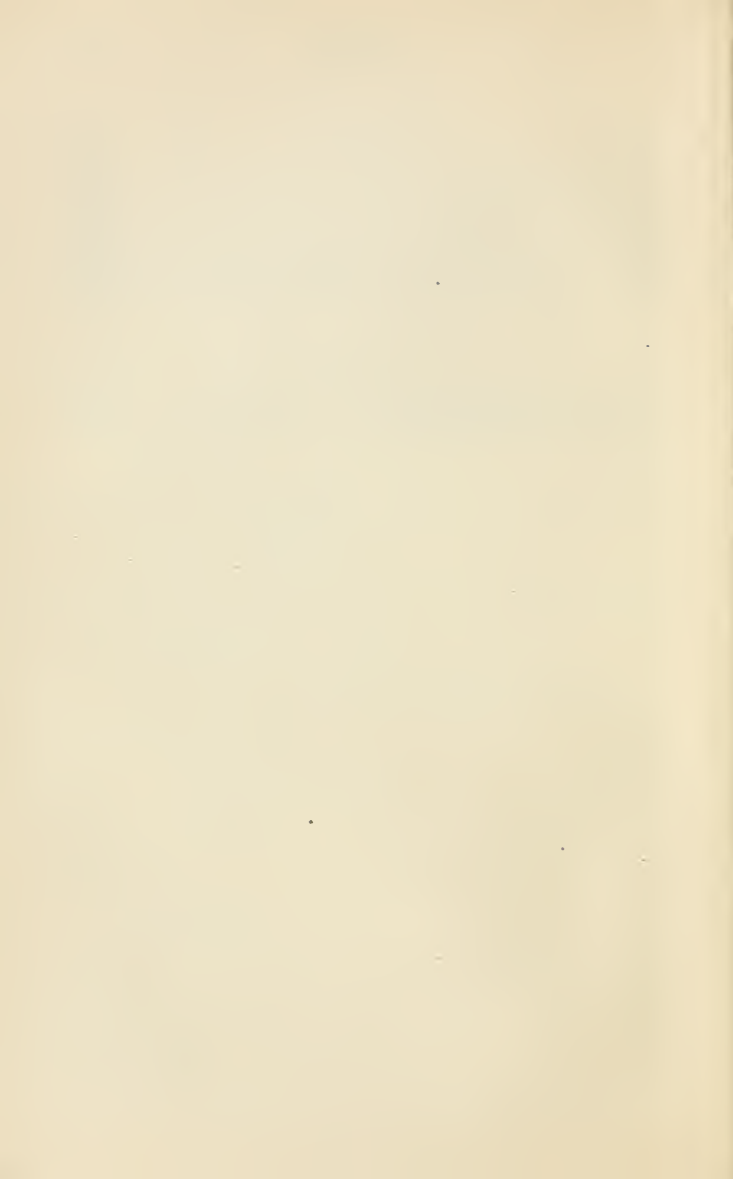
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LEADING EVENTS
IN
ENGLISH HISTORY.
PART I.

ROMAN INVASION AND CONQUEST.

DATE—55 B.C. TO 410 A.D.

CAUSES.—1. *Ambition of the Romans, who wished to conquer all the known world.* 2. IMMEDIATE CAUSE: *Conquest of Gaul by Roman general Julius Cæsar.*

Cæsar's two invasions, 55 and 54 B.C.—In the year 55 B.C. Cæsar had been engaged in subduing the Gauls to the Roman yoke. As a pretext for his invasion of Britain, he alleged that the Britons had rendered aid to the Gauls in resisting the progress of his arms.

He crossed the strait of Dover with two legions, or 12,000 men, and landed at Deal, after encountering a severe and obstinate resistance from the natives (55 B.C.) Owing to the approach of winter and the damage done to his ships by a storm, he returned to Gaul in less than a month after his invasion. In the following year (54



DIVISIONS OF BRITAIN

UNDER

THE ROMANS.

B.C.), he re-invaded the country with a powerful army. The British forces were commanded by a brave chief named *Cassivelaunus*, but were completely routed by the Romans. Cæsar demanded and received hostages, then re-embarked for Gaul, never to return to Britain.

The Roman Conquest, 43 A.D. to 410 A.D.—For nearly a century after the invasion of Cæsar no further attempt was made to subdue Britain, but two years after the accession of the *Emperor Claudius*, a Roman army under *Aulus Plautius* was sent over. *Plautius* drove the natives across the Thames, and was then joined by the emperor, who succeeded in capturing the town of *Camalodunum* (Colchester). *Plautius* and his colleague *Vespasian* gradually subdued the southern part of the country.

Ostorius Scapula, the successor of *Plautius*, vanquished the British chief *Caractacus*, and afterwards made him prisoner (51).

In the year 61, *Suetonius Paulinus* was appointed governor of Britain. While he was engaged in destroying the Druids, the British, led by *Boadicea*, queen of the Icenî, a tribe inhabiting Norfolk and Suffolk, rose in rebellion, and slaughtered a great number of the Roman colonists. She was soon after attacked by *Paulinus*, and defeated in a great battle. Unwilling to survive her defeat, she put an end to her life by poison (61).

Julius Agricola was appointed governor (78), and to him the complete conquest of the island must be ascribed. Having pacified S. Britain, he advanced to *Caledonia* (Scotland), and built a line of forts between the Firths of Forth and Clyde (81).

The Emperor *Hadrian* visited the island (120); and to prevent the Picts and Scots entering the Roman province, caused a wall to be built between the Solway Firth and the mouth of the Tyne. Fresh inroads of the Picts and

Scots induced the Emperor *Severus* to visit Britain (208), and, proceeding to the centre of the country, he compelled the enemy to sue for peace.

For seventy years after the death of *Severus*, we know little of the affairs of Britain. At last the Emperor *Constantius* came from Rome to take up his residence in Britain. He died at York (306), and was succeeded by his son *Constantine*, afterwards *Constantine the Great*, who, being in Britain at the time of his father's death, here assumed the rank of emperor.

In 410, the Romans withdrew their forces from Britain in order to resist the attacks of the German tribes at home.

RESULTS.—1. *Introduction of Christianity about the close of the first century by the Roman soldiers. Constantine the Great, the first Christian emperor, did much to establish Christianity in Britain.* 2. *Advancement of the Britons in the arts of civilisation, such as building towns, making roads, cultivation of soil, and extension of trade.* 3. *Loss of the hardy warlike character of the Britons, seen in their helpless condition after the departure of the Romans.*

SAXON INVASION AND CONQUEST.

DATE—457 TO 586.

CAUSE.—*Invasion of Picts and Scots, and defenceless state of the Britons after the departure of the Romans.*

After the departure of the Romans, the Britons were quite unable to protect their country. Under

DETAILS. the Roman rule they had lost their warlike character, and were now a weak and cowardly people. So when the fierce tribes of Picts and Scots

came down upon the southern provinces of Britain, they met with little opposition. Frequent appeals were made to Rome for help, but in vain, as Britain was no longer a Roman province. In the southern part of the island, there were two great factions—that headed by *Vortigern*, the most powerful of the British chiefs, and that of *Aurelius Ambrosius*, who was of Roman descent. These parties struggled for supremacy, while the Picts and Scots advanced southward to conquer both. Vortigern, to strengthen his cause, is said to have invited the assistance of the Saxons, who opportunely appeared in three vessels off the coast of Kent, under the command of two chiefs, *Hengist* and *Horsa* (449).

For seven years after their landing in the island, the Saxons did good service to the Britons, and Vortigern warred successfully against foreign and domestic enemies. The Saxons were rewarded for their services with the *Isle of Thanet*. But the Britons soon became jealous of their allies, who were so much more powerful than themselves, and the Saxons began to form plans for conquering a country more beautiful and fertile than their own. A struggle for supremacy, lasting over a century, ensued. Every year fresh tribes of Saxons poured into the country, gradually driving the Britons westward into *Wales* and *Cornwall*, with the exception of some who found refuge in *Bretagne* or *Brittany*, then called *Armorica*.

Many of the British chiefs distinguished themselves in the struggle with the Saxon invaders, by far the most celebrated being *Arthur*, king of the Silures (South Wales). He defeated the Saxons in twelve battles, but was at length slain through the treachery of his nephew, *Mordred* (542).

RESULTS.—1. *Extinction of the British population and language.* 2. *Change in the form of government—*

namely: (1) *Establishment of seven kingdoms, called the Saxon Heptarchy or Seven Kingdoms. Each kingdom was governed by a race descended from the leader who first founded it. The king who for the time had the ascendancy was called the Bretwalda.* (2) *Establishment of line of English sovereigns, existing till the present time. The kingdoms of the Heptarchy were gradually merged in each other, and at length Egbert, king of Wessex, having obtained ascendancy over the remaining kings of the Heptarchy, became the first sole ruler of England in 827.*

DANISH INVASIONS.

DATE 787 TO 1013.

CAUSE.—*Piratical habits of the Danes.*

The Danes, or Norsemen, made their first descent upon England at Dorchester, but did not attempt to settle in the country till the reign of Egbert (827). They were defeated by Egbert at *Hengesdown Hill*, in Cornwall (835); but after his death, they slowly gained ground in each succeeding reign, till the time of *Alfred the Great* (871), when they were masters of half the kingdom. Alfred defeated *Guthrum*, the Danish king, at *Ethandune*, near Chippenham (878). Guthrum embraced Christianity, and subsequently settled with some of his people in East Anglia, hence called *Danelagh*.

A fresh invasion of the Danes, under *Hastings*, a famous vikingr, took place in 893, but after a war of four years, he abandoned his attempt to conquer England.

Athelstan defeated the Danes at Brunnaburgh (938).

In the reign of *Ethelred II.*, a general massacre of the Danes took place in 1002. To revenge this slaughter, *Sweyn*, king of Denmark, came over with a large force, and devastated the country, forcing *Ethelred* to flee to Normandy.

RESULT.—*Accession of a Danish line of sovereigns, lasting from 1013 to 1042. (The restored Saxon line ruled England from 1042 to 1066.)*

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

HAROLD II. the last of the Saxon kings, was defeated by William, Duke of Normandy, at the battle of Hastings, 1066. Harold fell in the engagement.

RESULTS.—1. *The commencement of a new line of kings and nobility.* 2. *The transfer of the land from the Saxons to the Normans.* 3. *The establishment of the FEUDAL SYSTEM.*

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

WHEN INTRODUCED.—*In the reign of William I. (1066–87).*

According to this system, the conquerors of a country were always prepared to defend their con-

DETAILS. quests against the former possessors, or foreign invaders. All the land in the kingdom was considered as belonging to the king. The nobles, who held their lands direct from the king, were

bound to aid him with a fixed number of followers ; and these followers, who held land under the nobles, were bound to perform a like service for *them*. Lands held under these conditions were called *fiefs*. The lord was bound to afford his vassal or follower protection, in case of his fief being attacked ; and in return the vassal engaged to guard the castle of his lord a certain number of days in the year, and to contribute to his ransom, if taken prisoner. The ceremony by which the vassal acknowledged his feudal dependence was called *homage*. This ceremony was performed bare-headed, ungirt, and kneeling.

Under this system, the nobles rapidly acquired a *feudal independence*. The great chief residing in his castle, which he was often allowed to fortify, lost in a great measure his connection with his king. The last and greatest of these *feudal lords* was the Earl of Warwick, surnamed the King-maker, who was slain at the battle of Barnet (1471). After the Wars of the Roses, and the almost general destruction of the old nobility, the system was shaken to its centre. Henry VII. further weakened it by passing laws ‘to limit the power of the nobles, by reducing the number of their retainers.’

Chivalry, or knighthood, took its origin from this system. The monarch himself, *as a knight*, was on terms of equality with the poorest gentleman, and passed through the same probation. The principal amusement of the nobles and knights was the tournament or joust, held within an enclosed space, called the ‘lists,’ where a trial of skill in arms took place between rival knights. Ladies and nobles crowded to see the encounter from surrounding raised galleries ; and the victorious knight, amid the applause of the spectators, stepped forward to receive his reward from the hand of a *lady*.

THE CRUSADES.

DATE AND REIGN—1095–1291, WILLIAM II. TO EDWARD I.

CAUSE.—*Ill-treatment of the Christian pilgrims by the Turks, who held possession of the Holy Land.*

The Crusades (so called from French *croix*, a cross) were a series of attempts to rescue Palestine and the 'Holy City' from the infidel Turks.

DETAILS. The insults, robberies, and extortions practised on the pilgrims who visited the Holy Sepulchre, roused the indignation of Christendom. Mainly through the exertions of *Peter the Hermit*, a council was held at Clermont in Auvergne, under the control of *Pope Urban II.* where it was agreed that a *crusade* should be undertaken (1095).

Jerusalem was captured 1099, and *Godfrey* of Bouillon, a French leader, made the first king. It remained in the hands of the Christians till 1187. Robert, Duke of Normandy, eldest son of William the Conqueror, took part in this crusade.

Richard I. of England joined the *third crusade*, 1189, which grew out of the successes of *Saladin*, nephew of the sultan of Egypt. Taking advantage of the quarrels which prevailed among the Christians, Saladin made himself master of *Jerusalem* (1187). On account of a quarrel among the leaders, Philip Augustus of France, and Richard, little was accomplished. *Acre* fell into the hands of the crusaders, mainly through the exertions of the English king; but he was subsequently obliged to agree to a truce, and return home, leaving Jerusalem in the hands of the enemy. Edward I. the last of the crusading princes, joined the *eighth crusade* (1270), and was successful in raising the siege of *Acre*. In 1291, the 'Holy Land' was left in the hands of the infidels.

RESULTS.—1. *Introduction of the arts and refinements of the East.* 2. *Increase of commerce.* 3. *Progress of science.* 4. *The sight of so many countries extended the ideas of the people, and fostered a spirit of enterprise.*

ROBERT, DUKE OF NORMANDY.

Robert, Duke of Normandy, was the eldest son of William I. He was invested by his father with the nominal government of Normandy, which duchy he afterwards claimed as a right, and was refused. This led to a rupture between father and son. The king of France (Philip I.) gave Robert the castle of Gerberoi, from which he ravaged his father's dominions. The castle was besieged by William (1079), and coming into actual combat with his son, the father was wounded. Chiefly owing to the exertions of Archbishop Lanfranc, William Rufus, third son of the Conqueror, ascended the throne, to the exclusion of Robert (1087). Rufus invaded Normandy (1090), but was repulsed in an attempt to capture Rouen. The same year a treaty was signed between the brothers at Caen.

On the death of William II. (1100), an arrangement was effected between Robert and Henry, fourth son of the Conqueror, by which it was agreed that Robert should resign his claim to the English throne in favour of Henry, and in lieu receive a yearly pension of 3000 marks.* Henry soon broke this treaty, and Robert, coming to England to enforce his claim, was compelled to purchase his liberty by resigning his pension (1103). In 1106, Henry invaded Normandy, and captured his

* One mark = 13s. 4d.

brother at the battle of Tenchebrai (1106). Robert was imprisoned in Cardiff Castle till his death (1135).

CIVIL WAR.

DATE AND REIGN—1139-45, STEPHEN.

CAUSES.—1. *Usurpation of the throne by Stephen, Earl of Boulogne, second son of Stephen, Count of Blois, by Adela, daughter of the Conqueror; Matilda, daughter of Henry I. was the lawful successor.* 2. *Female succession unpopular in England.*

Stephen's reign was first disturbed by David, king of Scotland, Matilda's uncle. He invaded the northern counties of England, but suffered a signal defeat near Northallerton, in Yorkshire (1138), at the battle of the Standard, so called from a large crucifix, resting on a car, being the standard of the Anglo-Norman army. The Empress* Maud made her appearance in England in 1139, and fixed her headquarters at Gloucester, Robert, Earl of Gloucester, her half-brother, acting as chief adviser. Stephen maintained his position till 1141, when he was taken prisoner at the battle of Lincoln, and carried to Bristol Castle, where he was confined about nine months. Stephen's brother, Henry, bishop of Winchester, now acknowledged Matilda, and she was proclaimed queen, but her haughty overbearing spirit rendered her success short lived. She exasperated the citizens of London by threatening them with a heavy tax for espousing the cause of Stephen. The people flew to arms, and the new queen made a hasty retreat. The bishop of Winchester again joined his brother, and

* So called from her marriage with the Emperor of Germany (Henry V.).

Robert of Gloucester, being taken prisoner, was exchanged for the captive king. Robert died in 1145, and the empress withdrew to Normandy. A renewal of the war appeared certain (1152), when Matilda's son Henry landed in England to enforce his mother's rights. By the death of Stephen's eldest son, Eustace (1153), the way was paved for a treaty to terminate this civil strife. It was agreed that Stephen should hold the crown during his life, and on his death it was to devolve on Prince Henry.

RESULTS.—*Increase of the feudal castles, and the power of the barons.*

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS ON THE NORMAN PERIOD.

Many conspiracies were formed against William I. in the earlier part of his reign, but the *strong iron will* of the Conqueror bore down all opposition. *Exeter*, the centre of the rebellion in the west, was besieged and taken. *Edwin* and *Morcar*, two leading Saxon nobles, were defeated in the north, and the northern counties laid waste with fire and sword. William ordered the compilation of the *Domesday-Book*, 'containing a survey of all the estates, houses, lakes, rivers, and forests of England, to which was appended the value of each person's property, and the number of the inhabitants.' It is still preserved in the Rolls Library.

The *curfew bell*, introduced by the Conqueror, was rung at eight o'clock every evening, as a signal for putting out all fires and candles. This prevented in a great measure the holding of secret meetings of conspirators. *Forest laws* of great severity were also introduced. The country between Winchester and the sea was laid

waste, and on the ruins the *New Forest* was formed, which was used by the Conqueror and his family as a hunting-ground. Two of his sons, Richard and William Rufus, met their death here. The Saxons ascribed their fate to a retributive justice from Heaven.

Slowly the enmity of the Saxons toned down. Henry Beauclerc* ascended the throne in 1100, to the exclusion of his brother Robert, eldest son of the Conqueror. To conciliate the Saxons, Henry granted them a charter of liberties. By his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, the Scottish king, and niece of Edgar Atheling (grandson of the Saxon king, Edmund II.), the Norman and Saxon lines were united.

There was long a struggle for ascendancy between the two languages, French and Saxon, which ended in the reign of John, in favour of the latter tongue. It has, however, been since ascertained that more than *two-thirds* of the words in an English dictionary are to be traced to the *Latin*, chiefly through French. The arts and sciences advanced under the Normans, and commerce increased. The cinque ports—Dover, Romney, Hastings, Hythe, and Sandwich—were fortified by the Normans. The chief towns, in addition to the cinque ports, were London, Winchester, Bristol, Exeter, and Gloucester.

CONQUEST OF IRELAND.

DATE AND REIGN—1172, HENRY II.

CAUSE.—*Quarrels of the native kings.*

On his accession (1154), Henry II. sent an envoy to

* Or the Scholar. ‘Surnames’ were now generally adopted, and were applied for various reasons—namely, William Rufus, from the colour of his hair; Richard Cœur de Lion, or lion-hearted; Henry of Winchester, from place of birth.

Rome to obtain the consent of Pope Adrian for the conquest of Ireland. The pope acceded to

DETAILS. this request (1155), advising Henry to extirpate vice, and make the natives pay yearly a penny from every house to the see of Rome. The English barons were, however, opposed to this scheme; and for a time it fell through. But a favourable opportunity was near at hand. Dermot, king of Leinster, had carried off the wife of O'Ruarce, Prince of Breffny, and thereby incurred the resentment of the husband, who, being strengthened by the alliance of Roderic, king of Connaught, invaded the territory of Dermot, and expelled him from his kingdom.

Dermot now sought the aid of Henry, who gave him permission to enlist adventurers in his service. *Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke*, was appointed leader, and, as compensation for his services, he was to marry Eva, daughter of Dermot, and be declared heir to the crown of Leinster. Strongbow landed in Ireland (1170), and took Waterford. He next advanced to Dublin; but further proceedings were stayed by order of Henry, who forbade any of his subjects to visit Ireland, and commanded all who were in that country to return. Strongbow, now, by Dermot's death, king of Leinster, accordingly returned to England, and surrendered most of his conquests; the remainder Henry allowed him to retain, as tenant-in-chief of the English crown. Henry himself embarked at Milford Haven (1171) with five thousand men, and received at Waterford the homage of the neighbouring princes. The Irish bishops held a synod at Cashel, and signed a formal acknowledgment of the English king's sovereignty (1172).

Note.—The parliamentary union of England and Ireland took place in 1801. By the passing of 'Poynning's' law in 1495, the English obtained control over the Irish parliament.

PERSECUTION OF THE JEWS.

DATE AND REIGN—1189-90, RICHARD I.

CAUSES.—1. *Hatred of the Jewish religion.* 2. *Wealth of the Jews.* 3. *Presence of the Jews at Richard's coronation, despite a proclamation prohibiting their attendance.*

Preparations were being made (1189) for another crusade. The Jews and Saracens were alike
 DETAILS. detested by the crusaders; the former were suspected of having sold military stores to the soldiers of Mohammed. Large extortions had been wrung from the people to enable Richard in person to head a crusading army, and the comparative wealth of the Jews roused the hatred of the Christians. Their appearance at the king's coronation presented an opportunity for an outbreak of popular wrath. Being discovered, they were subjected to the insults of the assembly, and an attempted escape led to a general massacre, and a wholesale burning and pillaging of Jewish property. The outbreak speedily spread to the provinces. Five hundred of the hated race sought refuge in York Castle. Finding themselves unable to defend the place, the women and children were first murdered, and the imprisoned Jews then perished in a fire of their own kindling (1190).

Note.—The persecution of the Jews did not terminate in Richard's reign, but was continued notably in the reigns of John and Edward I. The most common pretext for their persecution in the latter reign, was their alleged adulteration of the coinage. Fifteen thousand were at one time banished the kingdom, and deprived of their possessions (1275).

RESULT.—*The comparative number of Jews residing in England has never since been so great.*

KING JOHN'S QUARREL WITH POPE INNOCENT III.

DATE—1207-13.

CAUSE.—*Dispute as to the right of nomination to the see of Canterbury.*

King John was one of the weakest kings that grasped the English sceptre; Innocent III. one of the most powerful pontiffs. In 1205, *Hubert*, archbishop of Canterbury, died; and the pope decided that the right of electing a successor lay with the monks of St Augustine's Abbey—who were his creatures—and not with the bishops of the province. In accordance with the wish of the monks, *Stephen Langton* was elected to the primacy, without the consent or knowledge of John, who had desired the office for his favourite, the bishop of Norwich (1207). The king retaliated by banishing the monks, and seizing their revenues. To force John into submission, the pope laid the kingdom under an *interdict* (1208). Finding this unavailing, a sentence of *excommunication* was passed on the king by the pontiff (1209). Three years afterwards, Innocent released the people from their oaths of allegiance, and intrusted Philip, king of France, with the carrying out of the sentence of *deposition*. John now gave way, acknowledged Langton, and did homage to the pope's envoy, Pandolf (1213).

RESULT.—*Increase of papal power in England.*

SIGNING OF MAGNA CHARTA (1215).

DATE AND REIGN—1215, KING JOHN.

CAUSES.—1. *Misgovernment of John.* 2. *His insolent and overbearing character, which lost him the support of the leading barons and clergy.*

In the year 1214, a confederacy—of which Stephen Langton was one of the chief promoters—was formed against John; the objects being, 1st, That the power of the king should be kept within fixed limits; 2d, That the rights of the barons should be formally acknowledged. The king found himself deserted by nearly all his nobles, owing to his oppression and cruelty, and the barons openly prepared for war, failing a redress of their grievances. Robert Fitz-Walter was appointed their general or marshal. London opened its gates to them, and finding it impossible to stem the tide of opposition, the king agreed to meet the barons at *Runnymede*—between Windsor and Staines. Here the celebrated *Magna Charta* was reluctantly signed by John (15th June 1215). The principal clauses were :

1. That no aids or subsidies should be levied from the subjects, unless in a few special cases, without the consent of the great council.

2. That all the privileges granted by the king to his vassals should be communicated by them to their inferior vassals.

3. That one weight and one measure should be used, throughout the country.

4. That all men should pass from, and return to, the kingdom at their pleasure.

5. That all cities and boroughs should preserve their ancient liberties.

6. That the court of Common Pleas should be stationary.

7. That freemen should be fined in proportion to their offences, and not to their utter ruin.

8. That no free person should be tried or punished, except by the judgment of his peers and the laws of the land.

The two persons chiefly instrumental in obtaining the Great Charter were *Stephen Langton the primate*, and *William, Earl of Pembroke, Earl Marshal*.

RESULT.—*The power of the crown being now defined, the rights of the people were placed under the protection of the law.*

Macaulay says: ‘Both Norman and Saxon were alike aggrieved by the tyranny of a bad king. The first pledge of their reconciliation was the Great Charter, won by their united exertions, and framed for their common benefit.’

FRENCH INVASION.

DATE AND REIGN—1216-17, JOHN AND HENRY III.

CAUSE.—*Determination of King John to withdraw the concessions granted by the signing of the Magna Charta.*

After the signing of the Great Charter, King John retired to Winchester, to meditate on a scheme of revenge. Supported by a decree from the pope, he recalled all the concessions made to his subjects. Foreign troops, sufficiently numerous to alarm the barons, arrived in the country. John marched from Dover to Berwick, and laid waste a great part of the country. In their despair, the barons invited Louis, eldest son of Philip, king of France, to invade

England and be their king. Louis landed at Sandwich (1216), and the south-eastern district and London soon yielded to him.

Marching to repel the invader, while crossing the shore of the Wash, the tide overflowed, and the treasure, baggage, and regalia of the king were lost in the waves. John's vexation at the loss of his treasure, &c., threw him into a fever, of which he died at Newark (1216). He was succeeded by his eldest son, Henry, a minor of the age of nine. The *Earl of Pembroke*, a wise and valiant nobleman, was appointed Protector. His first step was to renew and confirm the Great Charter. Many of the barons now joined the royal cause, and the French army suffered a decided defeat in the streets of Lincoln (1217).

The French fleet, arriving with reinforcements, was vanquished by *Hubert de Burgh*; and Louis, finding his cause hopeless, concluded a peace with the Protector, and engaged to leave the country (1217).

RESULT.—*The fear of conquest by a foreign power united the people in supporting an unpopular government to repel the invader.*

REBELLION OF THE BARONS.

DATE AND REIGN—1258-65, HENRY III.

CAUSES.—1. *Long minority of Henry III.* 2. *Henry's irresolute conduct when king.* 3. *Violation of the Great Charter.* 4. *Favour shewn to the Provençals, owing to king's marriage with Eleanor of Provence.*—IMMEDIATE CAUSE: 5. *Attempt to obtain the crown of Sicily for Prince Edmund (Henry's son), which involved the king in heavy expenditure, and was the chief cause of his quarrel with the nobles.*

1. CONFEDERACY AGAINST THE KING.

Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, brother-in-law of the king, and the most powerful baron of
DETAILS. the time, determined to bring about a change in the government (which was rendered obnoxious by the elevation of the queen's relatives and other foreigners to the highest offices of the state), and a secret meeting of the disaffected barons was held. In 1258, Henry summoned a parliament to obtain money for his Sicilian scheme. The barons appeared in full armour, and angry words were exchanged. The king engaged to call another parliament at Oxford, June 11, 1258, to settle on a reform in the government, and the '*Mad Parliament*' met at the place and time appointed. A committee of twenty-four members, twelve chosen by the barons, and twelve by the king, was selected to decide on needful reforms. The principal enactments were: 1. That four knights should be chosen by the votes of the freeholders in each county, to lay before the parliament all breaches of law and justice that might occur. 2. That a new sheriff should be annually chosen by the freeholders of each county. 3. That three sessions of parliament should be annually held. Discord soon broke out among the members of the new government, and Henry, taking advantage of this disunion, attempted to break through the new arrangements, being further strengthened by a papal bull absolving him from his oath. The barons now resolved to appeal to the sword.

2. CIVIL WAR.

At the battle of *Lewes* (1264), Leicester defeated the royal forces, the king himself being taken prisoner, and Edward, Prince of Wales, was compelled to yield himself a hostage of peace. In order to strengthen his power,

Leicester summoned a new parliament in London, January 20, 1265. In addition to the barons and dignified clergy, he ordered returns to be made of two knights from every shire, and two representatives of each borough. This is considered the first meeting of the *English House of Commons*. Jealous of the power of Leicester, two of the leading nobles, the Earls of Gloucester and Derby, opened communications with Prince Edward, which ultimately led to his release. Hostilities were soon resumed. The baronial party was defeated at the battle of *Evesham*, 1265, Leicester being among the slain. King Henry himself narrowly escaped with his life. Being placed in front of the battle by the rebels, and clad in armour, he received a wound, but saved himself by exclaiming: 'I am Henry of Winchester, your king.' By this victory, the royal authority was soon re-established.

RESULT.—*Meeting of the first House of Commons—'the archetype of all the representative assemblies which now meet, either in the old or in the new world.'*

CONQUEST OF WALES.

DATE AND REIGN—1282, EDWARD I.

CAUSES.—1. *Refusal of Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, to do homage to Edward.* 2. *Ambitious policy of Edward I. who desired to unite the British Islands in one kingdom.* 3. *Internal disagreements in Wales.*

The conquest of Wales had engaged the attention of Edward from the commencement of his reign. DETAILS. He had repeatedly required Llewellyn to do homage as his vassal, in vain, and he resolved at length to compel him by force of arms. Two of the

brothers of Llewellyn, David and Roderic, having been deprived by him of their possessions, lent all the weight of their influence to Edward's cause. In 1277, Edward arrived at Chester, and crossing the Dee, advanced, without any serious opposition, to Snowdon, the last refuge of the Welsh army. Surrounded on every side, Llewellyn was forced to surrender, and submit to the terms of the victor, which virtually meant the subjugation of the country to the English yoke. This roused the national spirit, and David making, when too late, common cause with his countrymen, surprised the castle of *Hawarden* (1282), and united his forces with those of Llewellyn. The Welsh now gained some advantages. The castles of Flint and Rhuddlan were besieged, and the marches ravaged. To put an end to this revolt, Edward sent a fleet to Anglesea, and himself advanced into the country by land. Llewellyn retreated towards the Wye, but the Welsh were outflanked and defeated by Sir Edward Mortimer. In a skirmish prior to the main engagement, the last king of Wales was slain, and his brother David was shortly after betrayed into the hands of the enemy. After a mock trial at Shrewsbury, David was cruelly executed, 1283. Edward now divided the conquered land into counties, and placed it under the rule of sheriffs. Soon after the conquest of the country (1284), the English king's successor, Edward II., was born at Carnarvon. He received the title of *Prince of Wales*, a title always since borne by the heir-apparent to the English crown.

Note.—The principality did not return members to parliament till the reign of Henry VIII. In the twentieth year of the reign of George II. it was enacted that all statutes should extend to Wales, whether specially named or not.

SUBJUGATION OF SCOTLAND.

DATE AND REIGN—1296–1307, EDWARD I.

CAUSES.—1. *Disputed succession to the crown of Scotland.*
2. *Ambitious policy of Edward I. whose ruling idea was to unite the whole island of Britain under one king and government.*

1. DISPUTED SUCCESSION.

Alexander III. king of Scotland, unexpectedly died in the year 1286, leaving as his successor
DETAILS. his grand-daughter *Margaret (the Maid of Norway)*, a child of three years. On the death of Margaret (1290), thirteen candidates laid claim to the crown of Scotland, a favourable opportunity being thus presented to the greatest of the Plantagenet kings for interference in Scotch affairs. Edward claimed the right of arbiter as Lord Paramount of Scotland; but this claim had no foundation in fact. It originated through *William the Lion of Scotland* having purchased his freedom from Henry II. by acknowledging Henry as his feudal lord; but this arrangement had been set aside by Richard I. who released the kings of Scotland from their vassalage on payment of 10,000 marks. The Scotch nobles themselves were anxious to submit the dispute to the decision of Edward, and a meeting between them and the English monarch took place at the castle of Norham, on the English side of the Tweed, 10th May 1291. Edward insisted, as a preliminary step, that his feudal superiority should be acknowledged. The two principal candidates were *Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale*, and *John Baliol, Lord of Galloway*. Both belonged to the royal family of Scotland, and traced their descent from daughters of David, Earl of Huntingdon, brother of William the Lion.

The decision was announced in favour of Baliol (son of Margaret, the elder of the two sisters), who did homage to the king of England as his feudal lord (20th November 1292). It was the policy of Edward to provoke the weak Scotch monarch into some act of insubordination; and this was accomplished by his insisting that Baliol should surrender the three chief strongholds of the country—Berwick, Roxburgh, and Jedburgh.

2. WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

The national spirit was now roused, and Baliol entered into an alliance with France against England. The English gained a great victory at *Dunbar* (1296), and Baliol made an abject submission, and resigned his kingdom to Edward. Scotland was treated as a conquered country. The regalia and stone chair from Scone, in which the kings of Scotland were crowned, were carried to London. John de Warenne, Earl of Surrey, was appointed governor, and Hugh Cressingham, chief-treasurer. *Sir William Wallace* of Elderslie, in Renfrewshire, a brave Scotch patriot, 'endowed with gigantic force of body and heroic courage of mind,' now appeared on the scene, and was joined by several of the Scotch nobility. Weakened as he was by the jealousies of the nobles, the English monarch found in him, for eight years, a formidable and active enemy. In 1297, Wallace routed the English, under Earl Warenne, at *Stirling*, and Cressingham, the treasurer, was slain. The next year, Edward, with an army of 80,000 men, advanced into Scotland. He encountered Wallace at *Falkirk* (1298), and in spite of a brave resistance, the Scotch hero was defeated. He resigned his office of governor of Scotland, but continued for years to carry on a desultory warfare against the English. Comyn, son of Baliol's sister Marjory, and *Bruce*, grandson of the com-

petitor, were now appointed guardians of Scotland; and the former defeated the English at Roslin, near Edinburgh, 1303. In 1305, Sir John Menteith betrayed Wallace to the enemy, and he was executed with great barbarity by order of Edward, who imagined that the independence of Scotland would end with the life of Wallace. After the murder of Comyn in 1306, *Robert Bruce* was made king, and kept up a perpetual warfare against England. Determined to make a grand effort to overthrow his wary enemy, and finally subdue the country, Edward advanced with a powerful army to Burgh-on-the-Sands, near Carlisle, where he expired, July 7, 1307, desiring with his last breath that his son should complete the conquest of Scotland.

RESULT.—*Edward's invasions and government in Scotland so aroused the hatred of the Scotch to English rule, that the desirable project of the union of the two kingdoms was rendered more remote than ever.*

OVERTHROW OF ENGLISH POWER IN SCOTLAND: BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN.

DATE AND REIGN—1314, EDWARD II.

CAUSES.—1. *Internal disorders and feuds in England.* 2. *Superior vigour and abilities of Robert Bruce.* 3. *Hatred of English rule.*

The character of Edward II. was totally different from that of his father. He gave himself up to
 DETAILS. the influence of unworthy favourites, and the dying injunction of his father respecting the immediate prosecution of the war with Scotland was disregarded. Step by step, Robert Bruce, king of Scotland, carried on the war, till, in 1314, only the castles

of Stirling, Dunbar, and Berwick remained in the possession of the English. Edward resolved by one mighty blow to regain the position of his father in Scotland, and for that purpose assembled the largest army that ever advanced into that country. On the 24th of June 1314, the rival armies met at *Bannockburn*, near Stirling. Bruce was able to muster only 30,000 men to encounter the English host, which numbered 100,000 men, including the flower of the chivalry of England. The English were, however, totally overthrown, with great slaughter, and the wreck of Edward's army beat a rapid retreat across the Border. It was not until the year 1323 that Edward virtually acknowledged Bruce king of Scotland. 'The English never before, or afterwards, whether in France or Scotland, lost so dreadful a battle as that of Bannockburn, nor did the Scots ever gain one of the same importance.'

RESULTS.—1. *Independence of Scotland secured. Bruce now became the aggressor, and the English Borders were with difficulty protected against the inroads of the Scottish king.* 2. *The bad feeling engendered during the wars of the first two Edwards induced the Scots subsequently to keep up a constant alliance with France against England.*

FAVOURITES OF EDWARD II.

1. PIERS GAVESTON.

Piers Gaveston was a native of Gascony, and before Edward's accession to the throne had been received into favour by that weak monarch. So objectionable had Edward I. considered his son's connection with Gaveston, that, shortly before his death, he banished Gaveston, and made his son promise never to recall him. Disregarding the command of his father, Edward recalled Gaveston in

1307, and at once took him into his confidence. His insolent and arrogant conduct made him hateful to the old nobility, who formed a league against him, headed by the king's cousin, the *Earl of Lancaster*. The king deemed it prudent for a time to send Gaveston to Ireland as Lord-Deputy (1308), but the next year again recalled him, and loaded him with honours. Matters came to a crisis in 1312, and a civil war commenced. Gaveston was taken prisoner by the Earl of Pembroke, at Scarborough Castle, and imprisoned at Deddington Castle, in Oxfordshire. During the absence of Pembroke, the castle was besieged by Guy, Earl of Warwick. Gaveston was taken prisoner, and conducted to the town of Warwick, where he was met by Lancaster and the other confederate nobles, who ordered his immediate execution (1312). Gaveston possessed both courage and abilities, but his position as chief adviser of a weak king brought out the worst traits of his character, and was the cause of his untimely end.

2. HUGH DE SPENCER.

Hugh de Spencer, a young man of high rank and noble family, succeeded Piers Gaveston as the king's minion. His person was engaging, but he was not possessed of sufficient prudence to successfully encounter the opposition always ready to unite against a royal favourite. Spencer's father also occupied a high place in Edward's favour, and was generally respected on account of his talents and integrity. Lancaster and the chief barons soon commenced to form plans for the ruin of the Spencers. Their jealousy was aroused by the marriage of the younger Spencer to the king's niece, one of the co-heirs of the Earl of Gloucester. By the influence of Lancaster and his associates, a sentence of attainder and perpetual exile was passed by parliament against the Spencers

(1321). But the power of Lancaster was now on the wane. He was accused of negotiating with the Scots for aid, and this, while weakening his own cause, strengthened the king's party. Lancaster summoned his supporters to meet him at Doncaster; but being disappointed in his project of forming a junction with his Scotch allies, he retreated to *Borough-bridge*, where he was defeated and taken prisoner (1322). He was executed at Pontefract the same year, and the Spencers were endowed with some of his forfeited estates. Queen Isabella had long regarded with aversion her husband's partiality for the Spencers. She obtained permission to visit the French court (1325), and there met several of the exiled barons, with whom a plot to depose her husband was discussed. Isabella landed at Orwell, in Suffolk (1326). Owing to the unpopularity of the Spencers, the chief nobles rallied round her. Edward embarked for Ireland, but was compelled by adverse winds to take refuge near Swansea. The younger Spencer was taken prisoner, and executed at Hereford; the elder surrendered to the citizens of Bristol, and was executed on a charge of treason (1327). Hearing of the fate of the Spencers, the king surrendered to the queen's party, and was cruelly murdered at Berkeley Castle, September 21, 1327.

WARS WITH SCOTLAND.

DATE AND REIGN—1332-57, EDWARD III.

- CAUSES.—1. *Edward wished to recover the feudal superiority enjoyed by Henry II. Edward I. and Edward II.*
2. *Invasion of north of England by the Scots.*

Robert Bruce died in the year 1329, and was succeeded by his son, David II., who possessed few of the sterling abilities of his father. The king of England secretly supported the House of Baliol—now represented by Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol—in an attempt to regain the throne of Scotland, as the best means of restoring his feudal superiority. Supported by Edward, Baliol returned from Normandy, and obtained a great victory over the royal forces at Duplin, near Perth (1332). Six weeks later, Baliol was crowned at Scone, and David Bruce retired to France. The next year Baliol was routed by Sir Archibald Douglas, and was forced to make a hasty retreat to England. Edward now engaged to aid Baliol, on condition that he would acknowledge himself his vassal, and cede Berwick to England. The Scots declined to yield the Border fortress, and kept up a brave defence under the Earl of March. Advancing to the relief of the beleaguered fortress, Douglas, the regent, encountered the English at *Halidon Hill*, a little to the north of Berwick. The regent was defeated with great loss (1333), and Baliol again mounted the throne. The disgust felt by the Scots, owing to the ceding of the south-coast counties to Edward, led to another revolution, and Baliol was again expelled. David Bruce returned to Scotland in 1342, and once more assumed the reins of government. Taking advantage of the English king's absence in France, the Scots, under the leadership of King David, invaded England (1346), and advanced as far as Durham. Queen Philippa, wife of Edward, promptly assembled an army under Lord Percy, and gave battle to the enemy at *Neville's Cross*, near the city. The queen's army triumphed, and David Bruce himself was taken prisoner. Edward captured Berwick (1356), and ravaged the country on his march. Scarcity of provisions induced him to relinquish his

invasion, and in 1357 he consented to the ransom of the Scotch king.

RESULT.—*Overthrow of the Baliols.*

ATTEMPTED CONQUEST OF FRANCE BY EDWARD III.

DATE AND REIGN—1338–60, EDWARD III.

CAUSES.—1. *Ambitious policy of Edward III.* 2. *Extinction of the male descendants of Philip the Fair, king of France.*

On the death of Charles IV. of France, 1328, Edward claimed the crown in right of his mother,
DETAILS. Isabella, daughter of Philip the Fair; but the *Salic law*, which enacted that no female could succeed to the throne, proved fatal to his claim; and Philip of Valois, nephew of Philip the Fair, was elected king. Edward, in 1338, obtained the consent of his parliament to open hostilities against the French, and landed at Antwerp the same year. No result of importance was effected till the year 1340, when the English gained a great naval victory at *Sluys*, on the Flemish coast. Edward now advanced with a large army—chiefly mercenaries—into the enemy's country. Philip's policy was to avoid the issue of a decisive battle, in the hope of exhausting the energies and finances of the English.

This course proved successful, and led to the conclusion of an armistice. The war was renewed in 1346. Edward, accompanied by his eldest son, Edward, the Black Prince, made a descent on Normandy, and advanced through the country to the suburbs of Paris. An attempt on the part of Philip to intercept the English, led to the celebrated *Battle of Crécy* (1346), and the total overthrow of the French. It was at this battle that the Black Prince

commenced his career of military glory. *Calais*—the key to France—was taken after an obstinate siege the following year, and remained in the possession of the English till 1558. The campaign terminated with Guienne secured to the English. A six years' truce followed, but it was ill observed on both sides, and a petty warfare was kept up. Ten years after the victory at Crecy, the Black Prince defeated the French king, John (Philip's successor), at *Poictiers*, and took him prisoner. The French monarch was freed by the *Treaty of Bretigny* (1360), by which Edward renounced all claim to the French crown, retaining, instead of his hereditary possessions, Poitou, Guienne, and Calais. Three million golden crowns were to be paid as the ransom of John, but failing to obtain this sum, he returned to London, and died at the Savoy Palace, Strand. (1364).

RESULTS.—1. *French war became popular with the English.* 'A period of more than a hundred years followed, during which the chief object of the English was to establish, by force of arms, a great empire on the Continent.' 2. *Increase of English influence on the Continent.*

INSURRECTION OF WAT THE TILER.

DATE AND REIGN—1381, RICHARD II.

CAUSE.—*Imposition of a capitation tax, which pressed with great severity on the lower orders.*

In 1380, to meet the expenses of the wars with Scotland and France, the government introduced
 DETAILS. a poll-tax of one shilling per head, levied on all persons in the country above the age of fifteen. A tiler of Dartford, in Kent, refused payment for his daughter. Angry words were exchanged

between the father and collector. The dispute ended with the murder of the tax-gatherer. The neighbours applauded the act, and Wat the Tiler placed himself at the head of a body of insurgents. The rebellion was further fomented by a crazy priest of Kent, named John Ball. The rebels, reinforced by large numbers of the disaffected from the neighbouring counties, appointed Blackheath as the place of rendezvous; and on the route thither, the mob occupied themselves in pillaging and burning the property of the upper classes. Arrived at *Blackheath*, the rebel forces amounted to 300,000 men. London became the prey of the rioters. John of Gaunt's palace at the Savoy was burned and pillaged, and the Temple destroyed. At a council of the citizens, presided over by the Lord Mayor, *Sir William Walworth*, it was arranged that a message should be sent to the rioters from the king, promising that his majesty would hold a conference with them on their retirement to Mile-End.

The king met the rebels at the place appointed, and the following demands were submitted for his approval : 1. *The abolition of slavery*; 2. *Reduction of the rent of land to fourpence per acre*; 3. *Liberty of buying and selling in all fairs and markets*; 4. *A general pardon*.

Richard agreed to these proposals, and the majority of the rebels returned to their homes. Meanwhile, Tiler and his lieutenant, Jack Straw, with a body of the more desperate rioters, had broken into the Tower, and murdered the primate and the lord chancellor. Encountering the king at *Smithfield*, Tiler behaved in so unseemly a manner, that the lord mayor felled him to the ground with his sword. Richard, with great presence of mind, immediately held a parley with the rebels, which resulted in their speedy dispersion. In a few weeks the rebellion was completely crushed, and 'charters of liberty' promised and granted by the king were revoked by parliament (1381).

RESULT.—*For a time, additional enactments of increased severity were enforced against the lower orders.*

USURPATION OF BOLINGBROKE, AND DEPOSITION OF RICHARD II.

DATE—1399.

CAUSES.—1. *Long minority of king.* 2. *His weak, fickle character.*—IMMEDIATE CAUSE: 3. *Banishment of Henry Bolingbroke (son of John of Gaunt, and grandson of Edward III.), and seizure of his estates.*

In the year 1386, parliament, by the advice of the Duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, impeached De la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, chancellor and the king's favourite. This impeachment is important, as it confirmed to the Commons their right to impeach the ministers of the crown. The chancellor was sentenced to imprisonment, and the same parliament compelled the king to sign a 'commission of regency;' Gloucester, the king's uncle, being made president. The 'reforming party' now 'appealed' (accused) five of the king's favourites of treason. These sought safety in flight, and a rising in favour of Richard at Radcot was suppressed (1387). In 1389, Richard took the government into his own hands, and for some years there was a comparative lull. On a charge of plotting against him, and opposing his marriage with a French princess, the king ordered the seizure of Gloucester, Arundel, and Warwick (lords appellant). Gloucester was secretly murdered at Calais, Arundel was executed, and Warwick imprisoned for life. Of the leaders of the opposition or lords appellant, there remained (1397)

Henry Bolingbroke and the Duke of Norfolk. A dispute between these powerful nobles was to be decided by single combat, under the royal sanction; but at the last moment Richard withdrew his consent, and banished Bolingbroke for ten years, and Norfolk for life. On the death of John of Gaunt, Bolingbroke's father (1399), Richard seized the estates. Bolingbroke landed at *Ravenspur* in Yorkshire, professedly to recover his inheritance, and was joined by the Earl of Northumberland and the Duke of York, regent during the absence of Richard in Ireland. Richard landed in Wales, but his army proving unfaithful, he surrendered to Bolingbroke, who now threw off the mask, and claimed the crown. When parliament met, articles of impeachment were read against the king, the chief being the murder of Gloucester, and he was held to have forfeited the crown. The fallen king was imprisoned at Pontefract. The manner and time of his death is an 'historic doubt.' Bolingbroke, the first monarch of the House of Lancaster, ascended the throne under the title of Henry IV.

RESULT.—*This usurpation led to the Wars of the Roses. Henry IV.'s reign was constantly disturbed by plots and rebellions. Henry V.'s successes in France diverted the minds of his subjects from his defective title; but during the weak reign of Henry VI. the usurpation brought forth bitter fruits.*

THOMAS À BECKET.

BORN 1117—DIED 1170.

Thomas à Becket was the son of Gilbert Becket, a merchant of London. He was educated at Merton Abbey in Surrey, and completed his education at the celebrated schools of London, Oxford, and Paris. On

the death of his father, he was taken into the family of Theobald the primate. Theobald made him archdeacon of Canterbury, and prebendary of Lincoln and St Paul's. In 1158, Henry II. made him chancellor, a very popular appointment, as Becket was the first Englishman who had received high office since the Conquest.

On the death of Theobald (1162), Becket was appointed archbishop of Canterbury. Prior to this appointment, Becket was simply a tool in the hands of the king, but after his elevation to the see of Canterbury, his whole conduct exhibited a complete change.

Henry summoned a council of the nobility and clergy at Clarendon in Wilts (1164): here the sixteen *Constitutions of Clarendon* were passed. Their general tendency was to limit the power of the clergy, and Becket, who had at first reluctantly given in his adhesion to the articles, soon gave proof that he was resolved to maintain the power of his order. This aroused the anger of the king, and at a council held at Northampton (1164), he directed a series of charges to be drawn up against the archbishop. To escape the threatening storm, Becket fled to France, and sought and obtained protection of Louis VII. A hollow reconciliation was patched up between the king and the archbishop (1170), and the latter returned to England. In consequence of a hasty expression of the king, while residing at his castle near Bayeux, four knights started immediately for England, and murdered the prelate in his cathedral, December 29, 1170.

The people regarded Becket as a martyr, and many pilgrimages were made to his tomb.

EDWARD, THE BLACK PRINCE.

BORN 1330—DIED 1376.

Edward, Prince of Wales, surnamed the Black Prince, was the eldest son of Edward III. He was born at Woodstock in 1330, and was early trained to the profession of arms. In 1361, he married Joan, daughter of his great-uncle the Earl of Kent, by whom he left a son, Richard, afterwards Richard II. of Bordeaux. When only fifteen years old, the Black Prince bravely acquitted himself at the battle of Crécy, 1346, and 'from that time became the terror of the French.' The victory of Poitiers (1356) was due in a great measure to the admirable generalship displayed by the valiant prince. King John of France, who was taken prisoner in the battle, was treated by him with knightly courtesy, and all the honour due to his high rank. Edward, who had been created Prince of Aquitaine and Gascony, now kept his court at Bordeaux, and conducted his government with vigour and success. In 1367, he invaded Castile, for the purpose of restoring Peter the Cruel, who had been driven from the throne of that country by his natural brother, Henry of Transtamare, with the aid of France. The prince was successful, but his connection with this affair did not add to his reputation, and encumbered him with a heavy debt. To free himself from his pecuniary difficulties, he resorted to the expedient of taxing his French subjects, who, headed by the Gascons, rebelled against the payment of the 'hearth-tax.' Limoges, which had revolted, was retaken by Edward, with attendant circumstances of great cruelty. This was the last military exploit of his life. His health

had long been in a declining state, and his death occurred in 1376, at the age of 46. Contemporary writers describe him as 'the mirror of knighthood, and the first and greatest of heroes.' He was buried in the cathedral of Canterbury, where his tomb is still to be seen.

JOHN WYCLIFFE.

BORN 1324—DIED 1384.

John Wycliffe, the great Reformer of the fourteenth century, was born in 1324, at a small village in Yorkshire. He was educated as a priest at Oxford, and afterwards made rector of Lutterworth, in Leicestershire. He was a man of great abilities; and being convinced of many errors and superstitions existing in the Romish Church, he openly preached and lectured against them. This gave great offence to the pope and church of Rome, especially as many became converted to his views, calling themselves Wycliffites or Lollards, thus founding a new sect in opposition to Rome. In 1382, he was condemned as a teacher of heresy, and withdrew from public life to the retirement of his rectory at Lutterworth. Here he completed his great work, the translation of the Holy Scriptures into the English tongue. This being the first complete version executed, it was eagerly sought after and read by numbers of the people, thus preparing the way for the Great Reformation, which took place in the sixteenth century. John Wycliffe, on this account, has been styled the 'morning star of the Reformation.' His death took place at Lutterworth in 1384.

PERSECUTION OF THE LOLLARDS.*

DATE AND REIGN—1399–1417, HENRY IV. AND V.

CAUSES.—1. *Increase of the followers of Wycliffe, commonly called Lollards.* 2. *Enmity of the clergy towards the Lollards, and the desire of the Lancastrian kings to retain the support of the clergy, by persecuting the seceders from their church.*

John of Gaunt, father of Henry IV. had leaned to the doctrines of Wycliffe, and Henry himself, in his earlier years, had inclined to the ‘new religion.’ On his accession, at the instance of Arundel, the primate, penal laws were passed against the Lollards. The Rev. *Sir William Sautre*, rector of St Osith’s, London, was the first martyr, and was burned at Smithfield (1401). William Thorpe and John Badby were the next victims; the latter declined a pardon, offered by the Prince of Wales, at the stake. One of the most celebrated followers of the new doctrine was *Sir John Oldcastle*, commonly called Lord Cobham. He had been on terms of friendship with Henry V. and that monarch, anxious to save his old friend, attempted by reasoning to convince him of error. Failing in this endeavour, Cobham was handed over to an assembly of bishops, who ordered his committal to the Tower. Cobham succeeded in making his escape, and secreted himself in Wales (1413). Shortly after, a meeting of Lollards was held in *St Giles’s Fields*. It was asserted by their enemies that a plot was determined on to seize the king at Eltham, and about forty of the alleged

* From the old German word *lollen* or *lullen*, to sing.

conspirators were executed (1414). Three years later, Cobham's retreat was discovered by Lord Powys, who effected his capture. He was executed amid the lamentations of the spectators (1417).

RESULT.—*Inauguration of a 'religious persecution' in England by law, which provided for seceders from the established faith a fate more terrible than that awarded to the worst malefactors.*

REBELLION OF THE PERCIES.

DATE AND REIGN—1403-8, HENRY IV.

CAUSES.—1. *Defective title of Henry to the throne.*—

IMMEDIATE CAUSE: 2. *His refusal to allow the Percies to ransom Earl Douglas and other Scottish prisoners taken at the battle of Homildon Hill (1402).*

It was mainly through the assistance of the Percies that Henry succeeded in his usurpation, and
 DETAILS. his refusal to allow them the usual liberty of ransoming their prisoners was the immediate cause of the rebellion. A powerful coalition—which included the Percies (Northumberland and his son Hotspur), Earl Douglas, and Owen Glendower, a Welsh chief—was formed against the king. About the middle of the year 1403, Hotspur and Douglas, before they could form a union with Glendower, were overtaken by the royal troops at *Shrewsbury*. One of the most obstinate battles of the middle ages ensued. The young Prince of Wales—the future conqueror of France—distinguished himself in the engagement, and though wounded, refused to quit the field. Hotspur was slain fighting bravely, and the rebels eventually gave way.

Northumberland, who took no part in the battle, received the royal pardon. Another conspiracy was formed (1405), headed by Northumberland, the object being to place the Earl of March (House of York) on the throne, but it did not succeed. *Scrope, archbishop of York*, one of the conspirators, was taken by stratagem, and executed. This is the first instance in our history of a bishop undergoing the capital sentence. A final attempt on the part of Northumberland to subvert the government (1408) proved futile. The earl was defeated and slain at the battle of *Bramham Moor*, near Tadcaster, the same year.

RESULT.—*Temporary triumph of the House of Lancaster.*

CONQUEST OF FRANCE.

DATE AND REIGN—1415–22, HENRY V.

CAUSES.—1. *Ambition of English king.* 2. *Weak state of France owing to the insanity of Charles VI. and quarrels of the rival Houses of Burgundy and Orleans.*

Henry claimed the crown of France as the descendant of Edward III. This claim had not even the shadow of foundation in fact; for, assuming Edward III.'s claim to the French crown to have been a valid one, Henry was not his direct representative. The ambition and military genius of Henry found full scope in France, distracted as it was by internal discord, and his great successes in that country raised the House of Lancaster to the highest pitch of popularity. Having first quelled a conspiracy of the Yorkists, Henry set sail from Southampton to *Harfleur*, which he took after its sustaining a gallant defence (1415).

Disease now broke out in the English camp, and three-fourths of Henry's soldiers perished. For the present, the English king resolved to abandon his enterprise, and to retreat by land to Calais. After he had passed the river Ternois, he discovered from the neighbouring heights the whole French army (100,000 strong) drawn up on the plains of Agincourt, to dispute his passage, so that an engagement was inevitable. The great *Battle of Agincourt* was fought on the 25th of October 1415, and resulted in the French suffering one of the greatest defeats recorded in their history. Without continuing the war, Henry crossed from Calais to Dover, and was received with the warmest demonstrations of welcome. Parliament voted him large supplies to continue the war, and granted to him for life a tax on wool and leather. Hostilities were resumed in 1417, when Henry landed with a considerable army in Normandy. He met with no resistance, except at Rouen, which held out for six months, and was at last reduced by famine. The assassination of the *Duke of Burgundy* in the presence and at the instance of the Dauphin, opened the way to Henry's final triumph—the Burgundians transferring all the weight of their influence to the English. The *Treaty of Troyes* was signed 1420, and provided: 'That Henry should marry the Princess Catherine, daughter of Charles; should act as regent during the life of Charles, and on his death succeed him.' The war was renewed by the Dauphin, who, supported by the Scots under the Earl of Buchan, defeated and slew the king's brother, the Duke of Clarence, at *Beaugé, in Anjou* (1421). Henry, who had gone over to England with his queen, returned to France, and again conducted the war in person, with his usual vigour and success. While besieging the town of Cosne, he was seized with illness, and retired to Vincennes, near Paris, where he died (1422).

RESULT.—*Thirty years' war between France and England.*

WAR WITH FRANCE.

DATE AND REIGN—1422-53, HENRY VI.

CAUSE.—*Conquest of France by Henry V.*

After the death of Henry V. *John, Duke of Bedford*, uncle to Henry VI. was appointed Protector in France. The first engagement between Bedford and Charles VII. was at *Crevant*, where the English, under Lord Salisbury, were victorious (1423). In 1424, Bedford obtained a great victory over the French and Scots at *Verneuil*. In 1428, the English invested the city of Orleans. It was here *Lord Salisbury* was mortally wounded. The Earl of Suffolk succeeded him in the command, and proved a worthy successor to the gallant Salisbury. An attempt by the French to intercept *Sir John Fastolf*, who was conveying provisions to the English army, led to the *battle of Herrings* (1429), when the French were defeated. After this success, the tide of fortune turned against the English. *Joan of Arc*, daughter of a peasant living at Domremy, sought the presence of Charles, and there asserted she had a mission from Heaven to drive the English from *Orleans*, and to lead Charles to *Rheims*, there to be crowned. Clad in armour, she entered the city of Orleans, and drove the English from before the walls. Two months after, Charles was crowned at Rheims. In 1430, Joan was captured during a sortie from the city of *Compiègne*, and after twelve months' imprisonment, was burned as a witch in the market-place of Rouen (1431). In 1435, the Duke of Burgundy deserted the English, and Bedford died the same year. Anjou and

Maine were ceded by the king's marriage with Margaret of Anjou, 1445 ; and the next year Normandy was taken. In 1451, Guienne was conquered ; and in 1453, Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, was slain at Chatillon in Perigord. Bordeaux was taken the same year.

RESULT.—*End of English supremacy in France. Calais alone remained in the possession of the English.*

CADE'S INSURRECTION.

DATE AND REIGN—1450, HENRY VI.

CAUSE.—*Discontent of the commons of Kent.*

The commons of Kent were roused to action in 1450, by rumours that Henry's queen, Margaret of Anjou, intended holding them responsible for the murder of her favourite the Duke of Suffolk. It has been asserted that the Yorkists encouraged the rising, and Cade's rebellion has generally been considered a prelude to the *Wars of the Roses*.

Jack Cade, a native of Ireland, was the chosen leader of the men of Kent, and assumed the name of *John Mortimer*, as a connection of the *House of York*. By this means his popularity was increased, and he was soon at the head of a considerable force. Sir Humphrey Stafford, who had been sent to oppose him, was defeated and slain at Sevenoaks, and the rebels entered London. Lord Say, an unpopular minister, was executed, but on the whole, the insurgents conducted themselves with moderation. An isolated act of violence led to their defeat. Assisted by the citizens, a detachment of soldiers under Lord Scales, governor of the Tower, encountered the rebels, who received a signal check. Upon receiving the promise of a general pardon from the primate, they retreated to

Rochester, and thence dispersed. A price was afterwards set on Cade's head, and he was captured and executed by Alexander Iden, a gentleman of Sussex (1450).

RESULT.—*Increased confidence of the Yorkists. 'It has been supposed that the outbreak was instigated by the members of the House of York to try the temper of the nation with reference to their claims to the throne.'*

WARS OF THE ROSES.

DATE AND REIGN—1455-85, HENRY VI., EDWARD IV.,
RICHARD III.

CAUSE.—*Richard, Duke of York, in 1452, asserted his prior claim to the throne, as being descended from Lionel, third son of Edward III. The Lancastrians traced their descent from John of Gaunt, fourth son of Edward III. The reigning family relied mainly on their right by conquest, and the ratification of their claim by parliament.*

The following table gives the descent of the rival houses from Edward III. :

<i>York—White Rose.</i>	<i>Lancaster—Red.</i>
Edward III.	Edward III.
Lionel (third son).	John of Gaunt (fourth son),
	married Blanche of Lancaster.
Philippa, married Ed. Mortimer,	
Earl of March.	Henry, Duke of Hereford,
	afterwards Henry IV.
Roger.	
	Henry V.
Anne, married Richard,	
Earl of Cambridge.	Henry VI.
Richard, Duke of York.	

out: 'Treason, treason!' *Lord Hastings*, one of the oldest friends of Edward IV. was arrested, and summarily executed on a log of wood in the chapel yard of the Tower. The lords Rivers and Grey were executed the same day; the former nobleman was the patron of Caxton, and one of the most accomplished men of the time. The path was now clear for the designs of Gloucester. The *Duke of Buckingham* addressed the Lord Mayor and citizens at Guild-hall in support of Richard, and induced a deputation to accompany him to Baynard Castle to offer the crown to the protector. After a show of feigned reluctance the offer was accepted, and Gloucester proclaimed king. The fate of the young princes was for some time shrouded in uncertainty. It at length transpired that Sir James Tyrrel, backed by a letter from Richard, induced Brackenbury, governor of the Tower (where the princes were confined), to give up the keys of the fortress for twenty-four hours. In the interval, two hired assassins entered, and smothered the sleeping boys with the bed-clothes.

Two hundred years afterwards, while altering a staircase in the Tower, a chest was discovered under it, containing the bones of two children. By order of Charles II., the bones were removed to Westminster Abbey for interment.

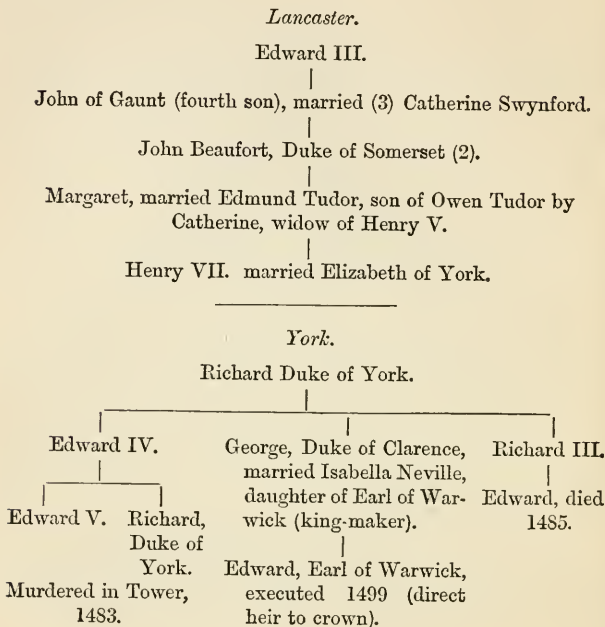
UNION OF THE ROSES.

DATE AND REIGN—1486, HENRY VII.

CAUSE.—*Marriage between representatives of the rival Roses.*

Richard III. the last of the Plantagenet kings, was slain at *Bosworth Field* (1485). The nearest heir to the throne was now the *Earl of Warwick* (representative of the House of York).

Table shewing the descent of Henry VII. and the Earl of Warwick :*



Henry, on his accession (1485), placed the young earl in strict confinement, and shewed by this and other acts, that the fear of losing a crown he held unjustly, was one of his ruling passions. When Henry's first parliament met, they presented him with a grant of tonnage and poundage for life, at the same time requesting that he would marry *Elizabeth of York*, daughter of Edward IV. The lords spiritual and temporal joined in the prayer.

* For descent of Richard, Duke of York, from Edward III., see 'Wars of the Roses,' page 44.

The union took place at Westminster Abbey, 18th January 1486. The marriage was celebrated by poets and chroniclers as the union of the two roses.

RESULT.—*End of a disputed succession (which had distracted the country—with but slight intervals—since the deposition of Richard II., 1399), by the accession in 1509 of a monarch who represented in his person the claims both of York and Lancaster.*

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS ON THE PLANTAGENET PERIOD.

Early Plantagenet Kings.—The Plantagenet dynasty ruled England for more than three centuries, commencing with Henry II. (1154), and ending with Richard III. (1485).

Henry II.'s continental possessions comprised more than one-third of France; and had it not been for the misgovernment of his son John, it is probable that England, under the sway of her French kings, would have become a mere province of France, and never have acquired a real independent existence. After the granting of the *Great Charter* by King John, 'a new soul was infused into the people of England,' and the history of the *English nation* commenced.

Growth of the power of Parliament.—The first House of Commons sat in the reign of John's successor, Henry III. and from thence we may trace the 'gradual development of the English constitution out of feudalism.' The main object for which parliaments were first summoned was to grant supplies, but the voting of supplies was soon made conditional on the redress of grievances. Edward III. being in urgent need of money to carry on

his French wars, made the following concessions : '1. That it was illegal to raise money without consent of parliament ; 2. That parliament should give its consent to any proposed alterations in the laws ; 3. That parliament should have the right to investigate public abuses, and to impeach ministers of the crown.' The usurpation of the Lancastrians, 'who owed their throne to a parliamentary title,' was favourable to the growth of parliamentary power, and the right of liberty of speech was recognised in the reign of Henry IV. In the reign of Henry VI. it was enacted that knights of the shire (county members) should be elected by forty-shilling freeholders. Edward IV. obtained grants of money from his subjects by forced loans, called *benevolences*; but this system was abolished by his brother, Richard III. in whose reign statutes were first enacted in the English tongue, and first printed.

Language and Literature.—The popular language was changed from semi-Saxon to *Old English* in the reign of Henry III. and so continued till the accession of Edward III. From the reign of Edward III. to the accession of Elizabeth, the language is known as 'Middle English,' and it was in this that Chaucer, the 'Father of English Poetry,' wrote his *Canterbury Tales*, and Wycliffe, the 'Morning Star of the Reformation,' his translation of the Bible. The greatest invention of the period was the art of printing, introduced into this country by William Caxton, in the reign of Edward IV.

Trade and Commerce.—The internal trade of the country was carried on largely at fairs. The principal exports were wool, leather, and tin ; and imports, fine clothes, lineens, fruits, and silk. The woollen manufacture was encouraged by Edward III. and his queen, Philippa, who invited over from Flanders several weavers and dyers. London and Bristol were the principal ports.

Henry III. granted a license to the people of Newcastle to dig coal, but the prejudice of the people against it was too strong to admit of its general use.

Architecture and Building.—The Pointed or Gothic style of architecture was introduced by the Plantagenets, and carried to perfection during the period. The Norman castles were superseded by large manor-houses of wood as dwellings of the nobles. The dwellings of the poor were the merest hovels.

Amusements.—The chief amusements of the great were hunting and hawking; of the middle and lower orders, athletic exercises and dramatic representations of sacred writ.

MARGARET OF ANJOU.

BORN 1430—DIED 1482.

Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Rene, king of Sicily, became the queen of Henry VI. in 1445, when that monarch was in his twenty-fourth year. Margaret was a woman of high spirit and courage, but imperious and revengeful. In these respects she was totally unlike her husband, who was weak and irresolute in disposition, and harmless and inoffensive in his manners. Margaret came to England as the enemy of the *Duke of Gloucester* (the 'good duke Humphrey'), who had opposed her marriage; and his sudden death in 1447 caused rumours of assassination, in which Margaret was implicated, among the people, by whom the 'good duke' was universally beloved. The general discontent against Margaret was heightened when it became known that, to obtain her hand for the king, Maine and Anjou had been surrendered; and, disgusted with her pride, the people bitterly called her the 'foreign woman.'

So weak and incapable had Henry now become, that Margaret and her favourites carried on the government as they chose. Her first adviser was the *Duke of Suffolk*, who had been instrumental in bringing about her marriage with the king. He was executed in 1450, and was succeeded in Margaret's favour by the Duke of Somerset. In 1453, *Prince Edward* was born, and Margaret seemed likely to continue governor of England during the minority of her son. Great dissatisfaction existed on all sides, and at length the *Duke of York* put forward his claims to the crown, and the *Wars of the Roses* commenced. All Margaret's spirit was now roused on behalf of her son Edward, and when, in 1461, Henry was deposed and imprisoned in the Tower, she rallied and reunited the Lancastrians for new efforts. But all hope seemed gone after the battle of *Towton*, and Margaret and her son took refuge in Scotland, 1461. Still her courage was unabated. She appealed to France, and at last obtained sufficient men and arms for another attempt; but after many disasters, she was again forced to leave the country, and found refuge at the court of Louis XI. 1464. Here she remained, waiting for the opportunity of again trying her fortune in the field, till 1470, when the Earl of Warwick, who had quarrelled with Edward IV. came to France as an exile. Margaret and Warwick, once foes, now made common cause. Prince Edward, now nearly eighteen, married Warwick's daughter, the *Lady Anne*, and preparations were made for a descent on England. After the disastrous battle of *Barnet*, 1471, in which Warwick was slain, Margaret took refuge with her son in Beaulieu Abbey; but, being persuaded by a few faithful Lancastrian lords, she determined on another struggle. This resulted in the complete overthrow of the Lancastrians at *Tewkesbury* (1471), where Prince Edward was taken prisoner, and afterwards slain. Margaret also

was taken as a prisoner to London, and the next morning Henry VI. was found dead in the Tower. After five years' captivity, Margaret was ransomed by Louis XI., and returned to France, where she lived in retirement till her death in 1482.

REBELLIONS OF LAMBERT SIMNEL AND PERKIN WARBECK.

DATE AND REIGN—(1.) 1487, (2.) 1492–99, HENRY VII.

CAUSES.—1. *Henry's weak title to the crown.* 2. *Enmity of the Yorkists.*

1. LAMBERT SIMNEL.

Lambert Simnel, son of a baker at Oxford, was employed to personate the *Earl of Warwick* (son of George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV.), the direct heir to the throne. In 1487, Simnel, with his tutor, Richard Simon, a priest, appeared in Ireland. The Yorkists had always been popular in that country, and the pretender's claim was soon acknowledged. He was crowned king at Dublin by the title of Edward VI. The *Duchess of Burgundy*, sister of Edward IV. and the bitter foe of Henry, assisted Simnel with a body of soldiers, under Martin Swartz, a veteran warrior. Simnel landed in Lancashire, with 8000 men, but few of the people joined him. Marching towards the south, he was met by Henry at *Stoke*, near Newark, and defeated. Swartz was slain, and Simnel and Simon taken prisoners. The former was made a scullion in the king's kitchen, and afterwards promoted to the office of falconer.

2. PERKIN WARBECK.

Perkin Warbeck first appeared in Ireland in 1493, and pretended to be *Richard, Duke of York* (son of *Edward IV.*), supposed to have been murdered in the Tower. He was received with open arms by the Duchess of Burgundy, who called him the 'White Rose of England.' His claim was also acknowledged by Charles VIII. king of France; but when peace was concluded between that monarch and Henry, Warbeck's hope of assistance from France vanished. He appeared in Scotland in 1496, and was warmly welcomed by James IV. who gave him in marriage the Lady Katherine Gordon, one of his kinswomen. A truce being concluded between the Scotch king and Henry, 'who was a better negotiator than soldier,' Warbeck repaired to Ireland. After a few months' sojourn in that country, he landed in Cornwall, which had recently been in rebellion, and was still in an unsettled state. The rebels penetrated as far as *Exeter*, and besieged that city. On the news of the approach of the royal army, Warbeck deserted his followers, and took refuge in the sanctuary of *Beaulieu*. Tempted by a promise of pardon, he yielded himself up, and was carried prisoner to the Tower. Attempting to escape from confinement with his fellow-prisoner, the Earl of Warwick, he was discovered, and both were executed (1499).

RESULT.—*Undisputed possession of the crown by the Tudors.*

FRENCH WAR.

DATE AND REIGN—1511-20, HENRY VIII.

CAUSE.—*Desire of Henry to obtain distinction as a warrior, and also a leading voice in European politics.*

In the year 1511, Henry joined the pope, Spain, and Venice in a league against France. The young
 DETAILS. English monarch's pride was gratified by the title of '*Head of the Italian League*,' which had for its object the expulsion of the French from Italy, and the conquest of Navarre. A French war was still popular in England, and Henry easily obtained large grants from his parliament for an enterprise that might lead to the possible recovery of the ancient possessions of the Plantagenets. Ferdinand, the wily king of Spain (Henry's father-in-law), employed the enthusiasm of the English for his own advantage. Henry was advised not to enter France by way of Calais, but to send troops to Fontarabia, in order that a union might be formed with Spain for the conquest of Guienne. Ferdinand had no intention of supporting this scheme, and the exertions of the united forces were directed to the conquest of Navarre, which was annexed to Spain (1512). The same year, Sir Edward Howard, the English admiral, fought a drawn battle with the French fleet off the coast of Brittany. Henry invaded France in person (1513), and defeated the French at *Guinegate*. This engagement is known as the Battle of the Spurs, from the hasty retreat made by the French cavalry. The campaign terminated with the capture of *Terouenne* and *Tournay*, and it was agreed that Henry's youngest sister Mary should marry Louis. Three months later, the French king died, and was succeeded by Francis I. 'the most gallant prince of the

day.' Ferdinand, dying in 1516, was succeeded by his youthful grandson, Charles, who, in 1519, was elected to the vacant throne of the Emperor Maximilian. Charles and Francis were rivals, and each intrigued for the support of Henry. A meeting between the English and French monarchs took place near the castle of Guines (1520). From the extraordinary pomp and splendour displayed on the occasion, this meeting is known in history as '*The Field of the Cloth of Gold.*' Charles had previously visited England, and secretly undermined the interests of France. Francis was taken prisoner by the emperor at the *battle of Pavia* (1525). — There was no longer any necessity for 'bidding' for English support, and the same year relations between Henry and the emperor were broken off. Peace was concluded with France the same year, chiefly through the influence of Wolsey.

RESULT.—*Commencement, on the part of England, of a series of continental wars, having for their object 'the keeping up of the balance of power in Europe.'*

THE REFORMATION.

DATE AND REIGN—1533–4, HENRY VIII.

CAUSES.—1. *Henry VIII.'s quarrel with the pope (Clement VII.)* 2. *Preaching of Martin Luther and other reformers in Germany.* 3. *Invention of printing.*

About the year 1527, Henry VIII. began to express doubts about the legality of his marriage
 DETAILS. with *Catharine of Aragon*, his brother Arthur's widow. The king's anxiety to obtain a divorce had been increased by his desire to espouse *Anne Boleyn*, whom he married in 1533. Owing to

Catharine's relationship to the emperor (Charles V.) of Germany, the pope, who decided all church matters, was placed in a difficult position. He, however, appointed two cardinals, *Campeggio* and *Wolsey*, to try the case (1529); but without coming to any decision, the court was adjourned to Rome. These proceedings led to the fall of *Wolsey*, who was afraid, on the one hand, of offending the pope, and on the other, of the displeasure of Henry. *Thomas Cromwell*, *Wolsey's* servant, rose into favour after his master's fall, and *Cranmer*, a clergyman, was made archbishop of Canterbury (1533). *Cranmer* suggested that the king should ask the opinion of the universities as to his marriage. In 1533 and the following year, parliament passed several acts which put an end to the pope's authority in England. The chief were—(1) Appeals to Rome on church matters were forbidden; (2) Peter's pence was abolished; (3) The king was made head of the church. The destruction of the monasteries followed under *Cromwell*, who was appointed vicar-general. In 1535, *Miles Coverdale* of Cambridge published the whole Bible in the English tongue. By a royal order, a copy of *Coverdale's* translation was chained to a desk in every parish church, so that those who could not afford to buy a copy had an opportunity of reading the Bible, or hearing it read in the English tongue. The abuses now existing in the Church of Rome, particularly the sale of indulgences, were denounced by *Martin Luther*, the great German Reformer. The preaching and writings of *Luther* and other continental Reformers attracted much attention in England, and prepared the public mind for the changes incidental to the altered relations with Rome. The Reformation, temporarily retarded in the reign of *Mary I.*, made rapid strides under *Edward VI.* and *Elizabeth*. In the latter reign, the thirty-nine articles of the Church

of England were drawn up in their present form (1562).

RESULT.—*Destruction of the papal power in England.*

PILGRIMAGE OF GRACE.

DATE AND REIGN—1536, HENRY VIII.

CAUSE.—*Changes in religion.*

In 1536, Henry VIII. being in want of money, was informed by Cromwell, his vicar-general, of the vast revenues enjoyed by certain monasteries and abbeys, and a commission under Cromwell was appointed to investigate or inspect these monasteries, and ascertain their revenues. On the returns being made, the king, pretending to act on the report of the commission, ordered the monks to be expelled, so that the revenues might fall into his hands.

These proceedings caused great discontent among the Catholics, and a rebellion followed, called, from its object, the *Pilgrimage of Grace*. The principal seat of the conspiracy was Yorkshire, and it was headed by the Archbishop, Lords Latimer, Lumley, Scrope, and some others of the nobility. Henry appointed the Duke of Norfolk to quell the rising; but on his arrival at the scene of action, a treaty was concluded. The next year, discontent again broke out, but Norfolk, with a large army, soon quieted the disaffected district; some of the nobles were put to death, and many of the people executed as traitors.

The destruction of the monasteries was completed in 1539.

RESULT.—*Breaking up of the organisation of the Roman Catholics, and appropriation of their property by the king.*

SCOTCH WARS UNDER THE TUDORS.

1.

DATE AND REIGN—1513–1542, HENRY VIII.

CAUSES.—1. *Old alliance of Scotch with French.* 2. *Refusal of Henry to give up his sister Margaret's jewels.* 3. *Invasion of the north of England by the Scots.*

Notwithstanding the relationship between James IV. and Henry VIII.* the ancient alliance of
 DETAILS. the Scots with the French had been actively continued by the Scotch monarch. Taking advantage of the English being engaged in a war with France, James invaded the northern counties of England, and captured some of the Border towns. The Earl of Surrey was appointed to the command of the English army, and met the Scottish forces, under the leadership of their king, at *Flodden Field*, in Northumberland. One of the most terrible reverses ever sustained by the Scots was the result. King James and the flower of his nobility fell in the engagement (1513). Sir Walter Scott says: 'The event threw all Scotland into a degree of mourning and despair which is not yet forgotten in the southern counties.' The war was renewed in 1542. The English were repulsed at Halydon Rigg by the Earl of Huntly (1542), but the same year the Scots were

* James had married Henry's sister, Margaret.

routed at *Solway Moss*. The news of the defeat threw the Scottish king (James V.) into a fever, which caused his death; and the crown of Scotland devolved on his infant daughter, Mary (Mary, Queen of Scots).

2.

DATE AND REIGN—1547, EDWARD VI.

CAUSE.—*Refusal of the Scottish government to consent to an alliance between their queen (Mary) and Edward VI. of England.*

The old enmity of the Scots appears to have been their main reason in breaking off the negotiations for what was apparently a desirable object—namely, union by marriage between the two countries. On the refusal of the Scots to agree to the marriage, the *Duke of Somerset*, the English Protector, determined by force of arms to compel their acquiescence, and carry out the wishes of the late king. Somerset invaded Scotland with a large army, and ‘the last great defeat which the Scots received from the English’ occurred at *Pinkie*, near Musselburgh (1547). The protector did not improve his advantage, and Mary was sent to France the following year, where she married the Dauphin.

RESULTS.—1. *Closer alliance of Scotland with France.*
2. *Another proof that the brilliant victories of the English in the field were totally inadequate to compel the submission of their northern neighbours.*

WYATT'S INSURRECTION.

DATE AND REIGN—1554, MARY I.

CAUSE.—*Proposed marriage of the queen with Philip II. of Spain.*

The queen's intended marriage with a Roman Catholic prince, and the fear that England might subsequently become a province of Spain, then the most powerful in Europe, aroused a strong spirit of opposition amongst the people, which resulted in open rebellion. The principal leaders, *Sir Thomas Wyatt*, and the *Duke of Suffolk*, met with ill success in the south, and Suffolk was made prisoner. Wyatt, being joined by great numbers at Rochester, next proceeded to London, where, after some delays and desertions, he was obliged to surrender to Sir Maurice Berkley at Temple Bar. This rebellion implicated the *Lady Jane Grey* and her husband, who were both executed. Suffolk and Wyatt also suffered the punishment of traitors. The Princess Elizabeth, being supposed to have some knowledge of the plot, was imprisoned for a short time in the Tower.

RESULT.—*The principle of female succession first practically acknowledged and enforced, despite the popular dislike to the queen on account of her religion.*

PERSECUTION OF PROTESTANTS.

DATE AND REIGN—1554-56, MARY I.

CAUSES.—1. *Destruction of papal power in reign of Henry VIII.* 2. *Enmity borne by Queen Mary and her advisers to the Reformers.*

Mary I. daughter of Catharine of Aragon, had been brought up a strict Roman Catholic. She succeeded her brother, Edward VI. in 1553, and acting in concert with her advisers, the whole of her short reign of five years was chiefly devoted to the persecution of the Protestants. The queen and her ministers hoped that, by adopting severe and stringent measures, the changes in religion introduced in the reign of her father, Henry VIII. might be superseded, and the papal power again restored. In 1554, parliament sanctioned the punishment of heretics, and reopened relations with Rome. *Gardiner*, bishop of Winchester, the chancellor, and Mary's chief adviser, took a leading part in the attempt to 'root out heresy;' but the task was finally delegated to Bonner, bishop of London. *Cardinal Pole*, a descendant of the 'royal house of York,' advised lenient proceedings, but his advice was overruled by the majority of the council.

Rogers, a prebendary of St Paul's was burned at Smithfield, 1555; and *Hooper*, bishop of Gloucester, suffered death in his own cathedral city. *Ridley*, bishop of London, and *Latimer*, bishop of Worcester, were burned the same year at Oxford, the latter exclaiming, when at the stake: 'Be of good cheer, Master Ridley, and play the man; we shall this day light such a candle by God's grace in England as shall never be put out.' *Cranmer*, the primate, was brought before the council for writing

and preaching against these proceedings. A promise of pardon induced him to sign a recantation of his religion; but the queen was bent on his destruction, and he suffered martyrdom at Oxford, 1556. The persecution was at its height when Philip II. of Spain (Mary's husband) was in England: it was therefore naturally concluded that Philip sanctioned and advised extreme measures. It is supposed that three hundred persons suffered death in the reign of Mary, on account of their religion.

RESULT.—*Temporary interruption to the progress of the Reformation.*

THE SPANISH ARMADA.

DATE AND REIGN—1588, ELIZABETH.

CAUSES.—1. *Damage done to Spanish coast by English fleets under Drake.* 2. *Elizabeth's refusal to marry Philip II. of Spain.* 3. *Attempt to crush the Protestant religion.*

In 1587, Philip II. of Spain fitted out a large fleet to invade England, and styled it the Invincible Armada. Sir Francis Drake delayed the expedition for about a year; but, in 1588, the armada sailed into the English Channel, under the command of the *Duke of Sidonia*, who was ordered to proceed as quickly as possible to Flanders, to form a junction with the land forces under the *Duke of Parma*. This design was, however, frustrated, and was the real cause of the defeat of the armada. A storm injured the vessels shortly after they left Lisbon; and the English ships, being much smaller, and more manageable, and under the command of *Lord Howard of Effingham*, aided

by such naval heroes as Drake, Hawkins, and Raleigh, inflicted great damage upon the enemy's fleet, which at last proceeded homewards round the north of Scotland. Many of the Spanish vessels were driven on the coasts of Scotland and Ireland, and not more than one-third ever reached Spain. The English land forces were placed under the command of the *Earl of Leicester*. Elizabeth reviewed her troops at *Tilbury*, and encouraged them by a spirited address.

RESULTS.—1. *Commencement of the naval supremacy of England.* 2. *Decline of the power of Spain.* 3. *England became the leading Protestant power.*

IRISH INSURRECTION.

DATE AND REIGN—1595–1602, ELIZABETH.

CAUSES.—1. *Attempted introduction of the 'Reformed faith.'* 2. *General discontent of the Irish against English rule.*

Although conquered by Henry II. so far back as 1172, the supremacy of the English monarchs in
 DETAILS. Ireland was merely nominal. Hugh O'Neale, an Irish chieftain, and one of the most active opponents of the English government, had been created *Earl of Tyrone* by Elizabeth, in the vain hope of securing his loyalty and support. He entered into a correspondence with Spain, the deadly enemy of England, and obtained valuable aid from that country. Uniting under his command the most powerful Irish chieftains, Tyrone defeated the English, under Sir Henry Bagnal, at Blackwater. This victory increased his fame and power to such a degree, that Elizabeth resolved on the adoption of prompt and vigorous measures. The *Earl of Essex*, her chief

favourite, landed at Dublin with an army of 18,000 men (1599); but instead of bringing the war to a close, as was expected, the English commander held a conference with the rebel chief, agreed to a humiliating peace, and then returned to England.

Elizabeth being justly incensed at the result of the expedition—‘the greatest and most extensive she had undertaken’—Essex fell under her displeasure. An attempted rebellion led to his downfall, and he was executed (1601). The queen’s death is supposed to have been hastened by the loss of her favourite, whom she survived but two years.

RESULT.—*Protestant religion established by law in Ireland, and commencement of ‘religious strife’ in the sister country.*

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS ON THE TUDOR PERIOD.

The Tudors governed England for nearly 118 years. Under their sway, the papal power in England was overthrown, literature revived, commerce extended, and English influence increased on the continent.

Government under Tudors.—The Wars of the Roses had nearly exterminated the old nobility, and the Tudors were thus enabled to rule with almost absolute power. Unlike the Plantagenets, they thoroughly understood the temper of the people, were personally popular, and well knew *when* to make a timely concession. This was notably the case with the two most arbitrary monarchs, Henry VIII. and Elizabeth. Henry VII. passed laws ‘to limit the power of the nobles by reducing the number of their retainers,’ so that the great barons were now no longer able to overawe their monarch. The courts of

'Star Chamber' and 'High Commission' were established by the Tudors. The former dealt with political offences, the latter with ecclesiastical affairs. The judges were responsible to the crown alone, and torture was employed to enforce reluctant evidence.

Language and Literature.—In Elizabeth's reign, Modern English, which has continued in general use to the present time, was first used. The revival of literature was due in a great measure to the Reformation. The chief writers of Modern English were Sir Philip Sidney (author of the *Arcadia*); Edmund Spenser (*Faerie Queene*); William Shakspeare, the great dramatist; Sir Walter Raleigh (*History of the World*); and Francis Bacon, the great philosopher. Round the throne of Elizabeth clustered a noble band of statesmen and authors.

The Navy.—The foundation of the English navy—properly so called—was laid in the reign of Henry VII. Before that time, when the English monarchs wanted vessels for transport or war, they hired them from the merchants. Henry VII. ordered a large ship-of-war, called the *Great Harry*, to be built of a thousand tons. Elizabeth has been styled the 'restorer of our naval glory.' Spain, then the first power in Europe, never recovered from the great naval defeat of 1588; and in turn, the English, under Drake, Raleigh, and Frobisher, acquired the position of her enemy on the ocean.

Trade and Commerce.—The discovery of America by Columbus in 1492, and the voyages and discoveries of Cabot, Raleigh, and Drake, led to the extension of commerce, and a love for maritime pursuits. London, Bristol, and Southampton were the chief ports. Woollen cloths and calf skins were exported; and silks, wines, and spices were imported. Sir Walter Raleigh first brought potatoes to England from Santa Fe, and tobacco from Tobago.

Leeds and Wakefield were the chief seats of the woollen manufacture, and Manchester first became celebrated for her manufactures.

Architecture and Building.—The Tudor or Florid style of architecture prevailed. Henry VII.'s chapel at Westminster is a noble specimen of this style of building. 'Convenient accommodation, beauty, and ornament were now more studied than defensive qualities,' in the residences of the great. The dwellings of the poor were built of rafters, mud, and clay.

Amusements.—Athletic sports were still popular. Bear-baiting and bull-baiting were encouraged by the court, and popular with the multitude. The regular drama owes its origin to this period.

Population.—The population of the country, at the close of the reign of Elizabeth, was about five millions; that of London being 160,000.

CARDINAL WOLSEY.

BORN 1471—DIED 1530.

Thomas Wolsey was born at Ipswich, of humble parents, and by his talents and perseverance raised himself to notice in the reign of Henry VII. He was made one of the crown chaplains, and so distinguished himself in this position, by his natural abilities and engaging manners, that preferment rapidly followed. In 1513, he was made dean of York, and two years later had attained the dignity of cardinal and chancellor of England, enjoying at the same time his royal master's (Henry VIII.) nearest confidence. His great ambition was to become pope, and in order to attain this dignity, he intrigued with Charles V. the emperor of Germany, then

the most powerful potentate in Europe, and who was anxious to retain the friendship and support of Henry against the power of France. Having been twice disappointed of his prize, Wolsey at length began to suspect the emperor of playing him false; and accordingly transferred his interest with the king to the French side, accepting payment from Francis I. for his services. In 1527, Wolsey became aware of Henry's wish to divorce his wife Catharine, in order to marry Anne Boleyn. The emperor of Germany was nephew to Catharine, and looked upon the proposed measure as a family insult. Wolsey, fearful of irretrievably offending him and the court of Rome—thus losing all chance of the popedom—on his knees besought Henry not to attempt to divorce Catharine. But opposition only made Henry more stubborn, and when difficulty after difficulty came in his way, he laid the blame on Wolsey, and at length resolved on his disgrace. In 1529, he was deprived of the chancellorship, and ordered to give up his palace at York Gate. The next year, he was arrested on a charge of high treason. This was a terrible blow, and added to his other troubles, speedily brought him to the grave. On reaching Leicester Abbey, in his journey to London from York, he was taken so ill, that he could go no farther, and died a few days after, November 29, 1530. His last words were: 'If I had served my God as diligently as I have served my king, He would not have forsaken me in mine age.'

THOMAS CRANMER.

BORN 1489—DIED 1556.

Thomas Cranmer was born at Aslacton, in Nottinghamshire. He was educated at Cambridge, and first attracted the notice of Henry VIII., by advising that monarch to consult the universities and learned bodies of Europe respecting his contemplated divorce from Catharine of Aragon. Cranmer suggested that the question for their decision should be: 'Can a man marry his brother's widow?' After the fall of Wolsey (1530), he rose rapidly into favour, and was appointed archbishop of Canterbury (1533). In his capacity of primate, he conducted an inquiry at Dunstable touching the validity of the king's marriage with Catharine, and pronounced sentence against her. He retained the favour of the fickle Henry till the death of that monarch in 1547. In the reign of Edward VI. he took a leading part in public affairs, and actively assisted in the progress of the Reformation. Edward was succeeded by his half-sister Mary (1553), a Roman Catholic, who, as the daughter of Catharine of Aragon, was not likely to forget the part taken by Cranmer in the divorce of her mother. For writing and preaching against the persecution of Protestants, he was brought before the council, and thrown into prison. A recantation of his religion, to which he was induced by promises of pardon, did not save him from the punishment awarded to heretics. He was burned at Oxford (1556), declaring, when at the stake, his firm adherence to the Protestant faith.

LADY JANE GREY.

BORN 1537—DIED 1554.

Lady Jane Grey, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk, was descended from Mary, youngest sister of Henry VIII.* who had willed his crown, after his own children, to those of his sister. In view of thus connecting his family with the throne, the ambitious *Duke of Northumberland* arranged a marriage between his son, Lord Guilford Dudley, and the Lady Jane. His next step was to persuade Edward VI., now fast sinking into his grave, to name Lady Jane Grey as his successor, setting aside the princesses Mary and Elizabeth as illegitimate by act of parliament. A few days after this will was executed, Edward died, and Northumberland hastened to place his daughter-in-law on the throne. Though little more than sixteen years old, she was exceedingly accomplished, amiable, and engaging, and it was much against her judgment that she accepted the crown, almost forced on her by Northumberland, her father, and some of the lords of the council. She was proclaimed queen on the 10th of July 1553, and reigned till July 20, when, being informed that Mary was proclaimed, and that her sovereignty must be given up, she replied to her father, who brought the tidings: 'In obedience to you and my mother, I did violence to myself; the present is my own act, and I willingly resign.' Queen Mary's first acts

* Henry VII.

|
Mary, married Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

|
Frances, married Marquis of Dorset, afterwards Duke of Suffolk.

|
Lady Jane Grey, married Lord Guilford Dudley.

were the execution of Northumberland, and the committal of Lady Jane and her husband to the Tower.

A rising under Sir Thomas Wyatt, in 1554, to prevent the marriage of Queen Mary with Philip II. of Spain, led to the execution of Lady Jane and her husband, though totally innocent of any complicity in the plot, 1554.

MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

BORN 1542—DIED 1587.

James V. of Scotland died in 1542, leaving an infant daughter, Mary, to inherit his crown. As soon as Henry VIII. heard of the death of his nephew, he formed a plan of uniting the two countries by a marriage between his son, Edward, and Mary. But Henry was hasty and impatient; and wishing to take charge of the young queen till she came of age to marry, the Scottish nobles became alarmed, and negotiations were at length broken off. In 1547, Henry died; but the *Lord Protector Somerset* determined to carry out Henry's project, and the battle of *Pinkie* was fought, resulting in the defeat of the Scotch. For the sake of security, Mary was sent to France, where she married the dauphin, and by the advice of the French court assumed the title of queen of England as well as Scotland. This aroused the anger and enmity of Queen Elizabeth. After the death of her husband in 1560, Mary resolved to return to Scotland, and arrived at Edinburgh in August 1561. All her subjects cordially welcomed her; the only drawback to her popularity being her religion—namely, Roman Catholicism. The Scotch regarded with abhorrence the teachings and practices of the Church of Rome; and *John Knox*, one of their preachers, sternly inveighed against the introduction of Papacy into Scotland, in the person of the queen.

In 1565, Mary married *Lord Darnley*, thereby displeasing Elizabeth, and the *Earl of Murray*, her own half-brother, and the most powerful noble in Scotland. The marriage did not turn out happily, owing to Darnley's weak and impatient temper; which carried him so far as to insult the queen, by causing the murder of her favourite servant, David Rizzio, in her presence, 1566. Soon after, Mary's son, James (afterwards James VI.), was born.

In 1567, Darnley was found murdered, and suspicion fell on the queen, and a nobleman named *Earl Bothwell*, especially as Mary soon after married him. This act made her extremely unpopular, and by the middle of the same year, she was in open war with her subjects. After many reverses and much sufferings she at length sought refuge in England, and threw herself upon Elizabeth's generosity. Elizabeth treated her as a captive, and she was moved from one castle to another as a prisoner for eighteen years. A conspiracy broke out in 1585 against Elizabeth, headed by one *Anthony Babington*, a zealous Roman Catholic. This proved a sufficient pretext with Elizabeth for bringing her unhappy prisoner to trial, and in 1586, Mary was tried for her life, under a charge of conspiring against Elizabeth. She was condemned and executed at *Fotheringay Castle*, February 8, 1587, at the age of forty-four.

LIST OF ENGLISH MONARCHS,

FROM THE REIGN OF WILLIAM I. TO ELIZABETH,
1066 to 1603.

I. NORMAN LINE.

RULED ENGLAND 88 YEARS.

William I. (the Conqueror) ascended the throne.....	1066
William II. (Rufus), son.....	1087
Henry I. (Beauclerc), brother	1100
Stephen (Count of Blois), nephew.....	1135 to 1154

II. PLANTAGENET LINE (MAIN BRANCH).

RULED ENGLAND 331 YEARS.

Henry II. (Curt) ascended the throne.....	1154
Richard I. (Cœur de Lion), son.....	1189
John (Lackland), brother.....	1199
Henry III. (Winchester), son.....	1216
Edward I. (Longshanks), son.....	1272
Edward II. (Carnarvon), son.....	1307
Edward III. (Windsor), son.....	1327
Richard II. (Bordeaux), grandson.....	1377

III. LANCASTRIAN LINE.

Henry IV.* (Bolingbroke) ascended the throne.....	1399
Henry V. (Monmouth), son.....	1413
Henry VI. (Windsor), son.....	1422 to 1461

* Son of John of Gaunt, fourth son of Edward III.

IV. YORKIST LINE.

Edward IV.* (Earl of March) ascended the throne.....	1461
Edward V. son.....	1483
Richard III. (Crookback), uncle.....	1483 to 1485

V. TUDOR LINE.

RULED ENGLAND 118 YEARS.

Henry VII. ascended the throne.....	1485
Henry VIII. son.....	1509
Edward VI. son.....	1547
Mary, half-sister.....	1553
Elizabeth, half-sister.....	1558 to 1603

* Lineal descendant of Lionel, third son of Edward III.

END OF PART I.

LEADING EVENTS

IN

ENGLISH HISTORY.

PART II.

UNION OF CROWNS OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

DATE—1603.

CAUSE.—*The accession of James VI. king of Scotland, to the English throne, as nearest heir, on the death of Elizabeth.*

Elizabeth, the last of the Tudors, died in 1603, and, by hereditary right, James VI. of Scotland

DETAILS. (House of Stuart) was her undoubted successor. The following table gives the descent of James VI. of Scotland and I. of England from Henry VII. the first monarch of the Tudor line :

Henry VII. married Elizabeth of York.

Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and sister of Henry VIII.
married James IV. of Scotland.

James V. son of James IV. and Margaret, married Mary de Guise.

Mary (Queen of Scots), daughter of James V. and Mary de Guise, married Lord Darnley.

James VI. of Scotland and I. of England, son of Mary and Darnley.

James VI. as nearest heir of Elizabeth and of his great-great-grandfather, Henry VII. became king of England, under the title of James I. King of Great Britain, by which means the crowns of England and Scotland were happily united. This forms one of the most important events in English history.

Although the crowns of England and Scotland were united by the accession of James, the two countries continued to be separate nations, each with its own parliament and institutions; the Scottish government at Edinburgh being presided over by a royal commissioner. This condition of things lasted until the legislative union in the reign of Queen Anne, May 1, 1707.

The accession of the House of Stuart to the throne of England was the forerunner of national misfortunes. James was learned and pacific, but he had some weak points of character. He was pedantic, facile, and irresolute; gave himself up to the influence of favourites; and he possessed an extravagantly high opinion of his kingly power. These qualities were unsuitable to the period in which he lived, and were, unfortunately, not redeemed by the succeeding members of his family.

At first, the accession of James satisfied the three great parties into which the English nation was then divided. These were—the Episcopalians, the Puritans, and the Roman Catholics, all of whom anticipated special marks of favour from the new king. Soon it appeared that James was a warm supporter of Protestant Episcopacy, which he identified with the existence of monarchy. A new translation of the Bible was resolved on, under his authority, and issued in 1611. This remains the authorised version of the Scriptures.

The reign of James I. was signalised by what is termed the 'Settlement of Ulster,' a large portion of that northern province of Ireland being forfeited to the crown in

consequence of rebellions, and allotted to English and Scotch Protestant settlers, 1609 to 1612.

Under James, the nation sank to the rank of a second-rate power. The House of Stuart, in fact, gave an unfortunate turn to English history, and, as will be subsequently observed, perished from its own short-sighted misconduct. From the reign of James I. is dated the growing power of parliament and people.

Explanatory Note regarding Religious Bodies.

The Episcopal Church, or Church of England, is that in which the control is vested in bishops. In the Presbyterian Church, all the ministers are on an equality. The Independents are a religious body who hold that every congregation is complete in itself, and subject to no superior authority.

THE GUNPOWDER PLOT.

DATE AND REIGN—1605, JAMES I.

CAUSE.—*Disappointment of some members of the Roman Catholic party, who had expected from James toleration of their worship, and a mitigation of the penal laws passed against them.*

The conspirators, the chief of whom were Robert Catesby and Everard Digby, resolved to

DETAILS. bring about a change in the government.

Accordingly, a plot was matured by which it was arranged that the King, Lords, and Commons should be blown up by gunpowder, on their next meeting, November 5, 1605. Two hogsheads and thirty-two barrels of powder were placed in the cellars beneath the House, and a person named Guido or Guy Fawkes was deputed to carry out the design of the conspirators.

A few days before the opening of parliament, Lord Mounteagle received a mysterious letter warning him not to attend, and saying, 'Parliament shall receive a terrible blow, and shall not see from whose hand it comes.' The letter was laid before the king, who had penetration enough to suspect the nature of the plot.

The vaults under the Houses of Parliament were searched early on the day appointed for the meeting of parliament, and the gunpowder was discovered concealed beneath piles of fagots. Fawkes was arrested at the door of the vaults, and upon him were found slow matches and touchwood.

He was put to the torture, but refused to disclose the names of his accomplices, until he found that they had declared themselves by appearing in arms. He was subsequently executed with some of his associates, including Digby. Catesby and others were slain in flight.

RESULT.—*Though the great body of the Roman Catholics were ignorant of the plot, penal laws of greater severity were enforced against them.*

CONTEST OF JAMES I. WITH PARLIAMENT.

DATE—1604–25.

CAUSE.—*The king's striving for absolute power.*

The high monarchical pretensions of James were encouraged by some of the clergy, who
 DETAILS. pronounced in favour of the doctrine of the 'divine right of kings,' by which it was maintained that, as the king ruled by divine right, he was above all laws. The chief points in dispute between

James and his parliament were—1. The sale of monopolies; 2. Purveyance; 3. The Spanish match.

The right of granting *monopolies* had become a source of *profit* to the court, by *cheating* the country. Certain persons were allowed to supply, at their own prices, articles of consumption and manufacture, to the exclusion of other traders. Thus Sir Giles Mompesson held the patent for making gold and silver thread. In this instance, the Commons revived their right to impeach public offenders; and eventually the king was compelled to agree to the passing of an act, declaring all monopolies contrary to the laws of the realm, except in the case of new inventions.

The Commons also remonstrated against *purveyance*, by which the officers of the court were permitted to seize, for the king's use, what provisions they pleased at any price or no price.

The third cause of grievance was the negotiation for a marriage between Prince Charles (heir-apparent) and the Infanta of Spain. The Commons openly expressed their opposition to the marriage of their future king with a Roman Catholic, but James denied their right to interfere. The Commons, therefore, entered upon their journal a protest, in which they claimed freedom of speech. This protest James erased with his own hand in the presence of his council.

RESULTS.—*Commencement of a long struggle between the Stuarts and their parliaments, which resulted, 1. In the execution of Charles I. 1649; 2. In the overthrow of the dynasty, in the reign of James II. 1688.*

CONTESTS OF CHARLES I. WITH HIS PARLIAMENTS.

DATE—1625-41.

CAUSES.—1. *Arbitrary government under Tudors and James I.* 2. *High notions of kingly prerogative entertained by Charles, encouraged by his queen (Henrietta of France) and his councillors, the Duke of Buckingham, Earl Strafford, and Archbishop Laud.* 3. *Determination of parliament not to grant the necessary supplies for the Spanish War,* without the redress of alleged grievances.*

First Parliament, 1625.—The war with Spain was conducted at an expense of £700,000 a year;
DETAILS. and a parliament was summoned to obtain the needful supplies. The Commons would only grant sufficient for immediate need, demanding the redress of certain grievances before they voted *ample* supplies. A considerable number of the members of the Lower House were Puritans, ‘a religious party who wished to make great reforms in the church, both in its government and worship, and restrain the prerogative.’ Both in church and state they were the steady opponents of the king. The Commons proceeded to inquire into the conduct of Buckingham, whom they accused of involving the country in the war with Spain; and Charles, in consequence, dissolved his first parliament, 12th August.

Second Parliament, 1626.—The impeachment of

* Caused by the statements of the Duke of Buckingham, relative to the marriage treaty between Prince Charles and the Infanta of Spain; in which the toleration of Popery was one of the articles.

Buckingham was put in a formal shape. Two of the leading supporters of the impeachment, Sir John Eliot and Sir Dudley Digges, were consigned to prison; but the Commons refused to advance a step until righted in this matter, and the two members were liberated. To save his favourite, Charles dissolved this parliament, which sat only from 6th February to 15th June.

Third Parliament, 1628-29.—War had been declared against France in 1627, for the *avowed* object of aiding the Huguenots (French Protestants). The Duke of Buckingham was repulsed in an attempt to relieve the Huguenots at Rochelle, and returned to England, having lost half his men. 'The dissatisfaction of the country was increased by the discovery that Charles had lent some English ships to the French king, to be employed *against* the Huguenots.' The third parliament was called to enable the king to fit out a second expedition to Rochelle, and despite the unpopularity of Buckingham, Charles again intrusted him with the command. But while preparing to embark at Portsmouth, he was stabbed to the heart by a discharged officer (John Felton), August 1628. The Earl of Lindsay succeeded Buckingham in the command, but he also failed to relieve the Huguenots.

Owing to the ill success of the war, and an attempt to billet the soldiers on the people and enforce martial law, great dissatisfaction existed in the country. The Commons were determined in their resolve to make the granting of subsidies conditional on the redress of grievances; and the king reluctantly signed the *Petition of Right*, called the second great charter of English liberties. According to its conditions, the king was—1st, *To levy no taxes without the consent of parliament*; 2d, *To detain no one in prison without trial*; 3d, *To billet no soldiers in private houses*; 4th, *To do away with martial law*.

Contrary to the provisions he had signed, the king continued the tax of tonnage and poundage without the consent of parliament; and soldiers were again billeted in private houses. Parliament, in consequence, again complained of the abuses of the government; and the king suddenly dissolved his third parliament. Some of the principal members of the opposition—Eliot, Hollis, Selden, Strode, and Valentine—were imprisoned and fined (March 10, 1629).

England without a Parliament, 1629–40.—For eleven years Charles ruled absolutely. During this period, his chief advisers were Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford; and William Laud, archbishop of Canterbury. Tonnage and poundage, ship-money, and other imposts were enforced. Those who opposed the arbitrary policy of the court were sentenced to fine, imprisonment, and mutilation, by judgment of the Star Chamber. Opposition to the established religion met with even more stringent punishment from the Court of High Commission, of which Laud was the chief promoter. In 1637, John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, possessing great talent and ability, refused to pay the sum of twenty shillings, imposed on his estate for ship-money. Legal proceedings were taken in the Court of Exchequer; and although a majority of the judges decided in favour of the court, the weight of argument was felt to be on the side of Hampden.

The same year, an attempt on the part of Laud—a prelate ‘whose principles approximated to Romanism’—to enforce the English liturgy on Scotland, led to a rupture with that country. The Scots, warmly attached to the Presbyterian form of worship, drew up a *National Covenant* against all changes in religious worship (March 1, 1638). Finding it impossible to coerce the Scots, even by force of arms, the king agreed

to an accommodation; and Presbyterianism was more firmly rooted in Scotland than ever.

Fourth Parliament, April 13, 1640.—Unable to secure adequate supplies, Charles called a fourth parliament. This parliament is known as the ‘Short Parliament,’ as the king dissolved it before it had sat three weeks. The king demanded subsidies to the amount of £840,000; offering, on his part, to surrender ship-money, which was estimated at about £200,000. But the leaders of the opposition—Pym, Hampden, and Cromwell—resolved, as a preliminary step, to inquire into the abuses of church and state, and to secure a redress of grievances. Lord Clarendon says: ‘This parliament had managed all their debates, and their whole behaviour, with wonderful order and sobriety.’

Fifth, or Long Parliament, 1640–60.—A body of peers advised the king, who was in urgent need of money, owing to his complications with Scotland, to call another parliament. The Scots, under General Alexander Leslie, had crossed the Border, and penetrated as far as Newcastle. As a last desperate resource, the advice of the peers was acted upon; and on the 3d November ‘met that renowned parliament which, in spite of many errors and disasters, is justly entitled to the reverence and gratitude of all who, in any part of the world, enjoy the blessings of constitutional government.’

‘The late events had not tended to put the Commons in better humour.’ Its first session was signalised by the impeachment of Strafford, and the imprisonment of Laud. The oppressive Court of Star Chamber was abolished, and all persons imprisoned by order of that court and the Court of High Commission were set at liberty. The impeachment of Strafford was led by Pym, head of the opposition, who, alluding to Strafford’s former connection with the Puritan party, had once said to him: ‘You

have left *us*, but we will not leave *you* while your head is on your shoulders.' A bill of attainder against Strafford, introduced into the Commons, passed the Lords; and a letter from the condemned earl induced the king to give his signature to the bill. Strafford was beheaded, May 12, 1641. (Four years later, Archbishop Laud, accused of treason, was beheaded, January 10, 1645.)

'While Strafford's fate was pending,' a bill was brought into the Commons, to the effect that parliament should not be *dissolved*, *prorogued*, or *adjourned* without its own consent. The king's assent to this measure was obtained, his power over parliament being thus seriously curtailed.

The difficulties of Charles were increased by a rebellion in Ireland towards the close of the year 1641, stimulated by civil oppression, and strengthened by religious motives. The property of the English settlers was wantonly destroyed; and everywhere, except in Dublin, the Roman Catholics made war on the Protestants, using freely the name of Charles's queen, an avowed Romanist.

On the 22d November 1641, the Commons, by a majority of eleven, resolved to draw up a '*Remonstrance* of the state of the kingdom.' It was in connection with the passing of this remonstrance that we have the first distinct proof of the Commons breaking up into two great parties—the *Royalists*, or *Cavaliers*; and the *Parliamentarians*, or *Roundheads*. The parliamentary leaders—Pym, Hampden, St John, and Cromwell—placed no confidence in the king, and were anxious to limit further his power. The royalist leaders—Hyde, Lord Falkland, and Culpeper—while admitting that grievances had existed, insisted that the chief grounds of complaint had been removed, and arrayed all their influence on the side of the king.

Charles made an unsuccessful attempt, in 1642, to seize five members of the opposition party—Pym, Hampden, Hazlerig, Hollis, and Strode—on a charge of high treason. This unconstitutional proceeding brought matters to a crisis. The king left London, and retired to York; and his queen, Henrietta, fled to the continent.

Subsequent negotiations between the king and parliament were unsuccessful, as the king was firm in his resolve not to give up the command of the army. Both parties now prepared for an appeal to the sword. Charles raised his standard at Nottingham, August 25, 1642.

RESULT.—*Civil War from 1642 to 1648.*

CIVIL WAR.

DATE AND REIGN—1642–48, CHARLES I.

IMMEDIATE CAUSES.—1. *Attempted seizure of the five members.* 2. *Refusal of Charles to give up the command of the army to parliament.*

Parties engaged—

1. *The king's party*, called royalists or cavaliers, including a large majority of the nobles and landed

DETAILS. gentry, the majority of the clergy, and the whole of the Roman Catholic body.

Principal Leaders.—The king, Prince Rupert, and Prince Maurice (sons of the king's sister Elizabeth, by the Elector-palatine). Though personally brave, these princes were wholly deficient in prudence. The Earl Lindsay was appointed captain-general of the forces; and under him served the Earl of Newcastle, the Earl of Brentford, Lord Wilmot, Sir Ralph Hopton, and Sir Jonathan Astley.

2. *The parliamentary party*, called also Roundheads,

including most of the small freeholders, and merchants and shopkeepers of towns, also a considerable minority of the nobility.

Principal Leaders.—The Earl of Essex, the Earl of Manchester, Sir William Waller, John Hampden, Oliver Cromwell, Ireton, Lord Fairfax, and his son, Sir Thomas Fairfax.

The royalists were supported by the north, west, south-west, and Derby; the parliamentarians by London, south-east, Lancashire, and Cheshire.

Principal Battles—

1. *Edgehill*, in Warwickshire, October 23, 1642.—Indecisive. Royalists led by Prince Rupert and Earl Lindsay, parliamentarians by Earl of Essex. A large number of royalists were slain.

2. *Stratton*, in Cornwall, May 16, 1643.—Parliamentarians defeated.

3. *Chalgrove Field*, near Oxford, June 18, 1643.—John Hampden slain.

4. *Adderton Moor*, in Yorkshire, June 29, 1643.—The Earl of Newcastle (royalist leader) defeated Sir Thomas Fairfax (parliamentarian).

5. *Lansdown*, near Bath, July 5, 1643.—Prince Maurice defeated Sir William Waller.

6. *Roundway Down*, near Devizes, July 13, 1643.—Lord Wilmot defeated Sir William Waller. All the principal towns in the west, except Gloucester, now fell into the hands of the royalists. Charles in person laid siege to that city, but unsuccessfully. On the approach of Essex with 12,000 men, the royalists retired towards London, and were pursued by Essex.

7. First battle of *Newbury*, in Berkshire, September 20, 1643.—Royalists led by king, parliamentarians by Essex. Result. indecisive; royalist loss large. Lord Falkland, 'the glory of the royalist party,' fell in this battle. In the

course of the year 1643, parliament negotiated for, and obtained, the aid of the Scots. The Scotch Commissioners and the English Assembly of Puritan Divines met at Westminster, to sign the *Solemn League and Covenant*. This document bound the revolted Scots and the revolted English to extirpate Prelacy, and unite in their struggle with the king. The Scots engaged to furnish 21,000 soldiers, to be kept in the pay of the parliamentarians.

8. *Nantwich*, in Cheshire, January 15, 1644.—General Sir Thomas Fairfax defeated an Anglo-Irish army sent over by the king's lieutenant in Ireland (Marquis of Ormond).

9. *Cropredy Bridge*, near Banbury, June 29, 1644.—The parliamentarians under Sir William Waller defeated by the royalists under Charles.

10. *Marston Moor*, in Yorkshire, July 2, 1644.—The Scots under the Earl of Leven had advanced to York, and were joined by a parliamentary army, under the Earl of Manchester. Charles, who feared that if the northern capital were captured, the loss of the north of England would follow, ordered Prince Rupert to advance to the relief of the royalists in that city. The parliamentarians withdrew to Long Marston (four miles west of the city). On the 2d July, the rival armies met, and the royalists were totally routed.

The victorious charge of Cromwell in this battle was 'the pivot of the war.' By this victory the parliamentarians acquired complete ascendancy in the north of England.

11. Second battle of *Newbury*, in Berkshire, October 27, 1644. — The royalists, under Charles, encountered the parliamentarians under the Earl of Manchester. The latter claimed the victory, but it did not produce any decisive result. A difference between Cromwell and the Earl of Manchester, who was accused by the former of unnecessarily prolonging the war, led to the *Self-denying*

Ordinance, which set aside all members of either House of parliament from military command. This ordinance was suspended from time to time in favour of Cromwell. The army was remodelled, and was chiefly composed of *Independents*. Sir Thomas Fairfax was appointed commander-in-chief, though Cromwell was the ruling spirit of the remodelled army.

12. *Naseby*, in Northamptonshire, June 14, 1645.—The royalists, led by the king in person, sustained a crushing defeat, chiefly through the impetuosity of Prince Rupert, who commanded the right wing of the king's army. After this battle, the king's affairs went fast to ruin. He fled first to Wales, and afterwards to Oxford, where he passed the winter.

Battles in Scotland.—The Marquis of Montrose, an ardent royalist, for a time won battle after battle in Scotland in the cause of Charles. The principal engagements were :

- | | |
|--|---------------------------|
| 1. <i>Tibbermuir</i> , near Perth, Sept. 1, 1644. | } Montrose
victorious. |
| 2. <i>Alford</i> , in Aberdeenshire, July 2, 1645. | |
| 3. <i>Kilsyth</i> , in Stirlingshire, Aug. 15, 1645. | |

4. *Philiphaugh*, near Selkirk, September 13, 1645.—In this battle, Montrose was surprised by General David Leslie, and his forces annihilated.

5. *Corbiesdale*, in Sutherland, April 27, 1650.—This battle was fought by Montrose in support of Charles Stuart, Prince of Wales. It resulted in his total defeat by Colonel Strachan. Montrose was soon after betrayed into the hands of the enemy, and executed with attendant circumstances of great cruelty at Edinburgh, May 21, 1650.

RESULTS.—1. *Trial and execution of the king*.—After the close of the Civil War, the designs of the two factions into which parliament was now divided became fully apparent. These were the *Presbyterians*, who wished

merely to limit the power of the king, and the *Independents*, who were desirous of bringing about a radical change in the government.

In the vain hope of receiving assistance from the Scotch Presbyterians, Charles surrendered himself to their army at Newark, 1646.

In 1647, the Scots delivered the king to the parliament, on payment of £400,000, being arrears of pay for their service in England, and the unfortunate monarch was the same year seized by the army. He was subsequently imprisoned at Hampton Court, and Carisbrooke and Hurst Castles. Mainly through the influence and direction of Cromwell (the real leader of the Independents), whose strength lay in the army, Colonel Pride *purged* the House of Commons, by expelling those Presbyterians who were known to be adverse to the king's impeachment. The residue, without the consent of the House of Lords, voted that the king should be tried for treason against his people. A tribunal, styled the 'High Court of Justice,' was formed, consisting of 135 members, of whom scarcely more than 70 ever sat. Bradshaw, a lawyer, was appointed president of the court. Cromwell and Ireton, and the chief officers of the army, were members. Charles refused to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the court, but his objections were disregarded, and after seven days' trial, sentence of death was passed. He was executed in front of the Banqueting House, Whitehall, January 30, 1649.

Charles was the ninth* English monarch who had died a violent death since the Conquest, 1066.

2. *Establishment of a Republic in England.*—After the execution of the king, the remaining members of the Long Parliament, known as the 'Rump,' established

* The others were : William I. William II. Richard I. Edward II. Richard II. Henry VI. Edward V. Richard III.

a republic, under the title of the Commonwealth. The government was vested in a council of forty-one members, among whom were Cromwell and Fairfax.

The Rump voted that the House of Lords should be abolished as useless and dangerous. After Cromwell's victories at Dunbar and Worcester, 'he was addressed from all quarters in language which proclaimed him a king in everything except the name.' Having the army under his command, and being dissatisfied with the Rump Parliament, he forcibly dissolved it, April 20, 1653. A number of persons, selected by the Congregational churches of the country, were summoned to form a new parliament, known as the 'Barebones Parliament;' but after sitting for five months, they gave up their power to Cromwell, who was proclaimed Lord Protector of the Commonwealth, December 16, 1653. A parliament, elected according to a more constitutional method, met September 3, 1654; but as it questioned the authority of the Protector, it was soon dissolved, January 22, 1655. Another parliament met, September 17, 1656, which empowered Cromwell to name his successor. A House of Peers was also created, but as the Commons spent their time in discussing the rights of the Upper House, instead of despatching ordinary business, the Protector dissolved parliament, February 4, 1658.

Cromwell's protectorate lasted from 1653 to 1658, and under his sway England more than recovered the position she had lost on the continent since the death of Queen Elizabeth.

3. *Formation of the two great English parties in the state*, which have ever since in turn ruled the country. Simultaneous with the breaking out of the Civil War, these two great parties appeared 'confronting each other.' The terms Cavalier and Roundhead have been since changed for Tory and Whig, or Conservative and Liberal.

REDUCTION OF IRELAND AND SCOTLAND.

DATE—1649-51 : PERIOD—THE COMMONWEALTH.

CAUSE.—*Change in the government of the country after the execution of Charles I. 1649.*

1. REDUCTION OF IRELAND.

Cromwell, who had been appointed Lord-lieutenant of Ireland by the parliament, embarked
 DETAILS. at Milford-Haven for Dublin, 1649. The parliamentary authority did not now extend beyond Dublin, Londonderry, and Belfast. Drogheda, which was strongly fortified and well garrisoned, was first attacked, and, despite a brave resistance, was compelled to succumb. All the garrison who appeared in arms were put to the sword. Wexford next fell into the hands of the victorious general, and two thousand of the enemy were slain. The severe measures adopted by Cromwell struck terror into the hearts of the Irish, and Cork, Kinsale, Clonmel, and other towns soon surrendered. Before the completion of Cromwell's task, the aspect of affairs in Scotland compelled his return to England, and the responsibility of completing the subjugation of Ireland was intrusted to his son-in-law, Ireton, who nearly completed the conquest of the country, 1651. Cromwell's son, Henry, was Lord-deputy of Ireland from 1654 to 1659, and under his administration that distracted country enjoyed an unusual degree of harmony and prosperity.

2. REDUCTION OF SCOTLAND.

Though the Scots were divided into two parties in

matters of church government, they were united in acknowledging the claims of Charles Stuart, Prince of Wales, to the throne. The command of the parliamentary army having been declined by Fairfax, Cromwell readily accepted the office. The command of the Scots devolved on General David Leslie, the conqueror of the brave Montrose. Early in 1650, the parliamentary army arrived in Scotland, and found Berwickshire and East Lothian laid waste and deserted; but their fleet, sailing along the coast, accompanied their movements, and furnished them in a great measure with the necessary supplies. The Scotch forces intrenched themselves in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, and maintained their fortified position until Cromwell, owing to sickness in his army, withdrew to Dunbar. Leslie at once left his intrenched position to intercept the retreat of the English, and placed his army in a highly advantageous position among the Lammermoor Hills near Dunbar, 'abounding with difficult passes,' all of which he strongly occupied. The prospects of Cromwell appeared at this time so gloomy that he is said to have contemplated cutting his way through the Scottish forces with his cavalry, and sending his infantry to England by the fleet. The interference and influence of the Presbyterian ministers in the Scotch army, who were anxious that Leslie should attack the English on equal ground, 'ruined this fair promise of success.' Opposed on equal terms to the veteran soldiers of Cromwell, the Scotch forces were totally overthrown—more than 3000 were slain, and 10,000 taken prisoners, September 3, 1650. The defeat of Dunbar placed the whole of the south of Scotland in the power of Cromwell; and three months later, Edinburgh Castle yielded to the victor.

But the Scottish parliament, retired beyond the Forth, still refused to submit, and Prince Charles was

crowned at Scone on New-year's day, 1651. Leslie and the Scotch army were now at Stirling, and Cromwell advanced to Perth, in order to cut off supplies. Suddenly, the Scots resolved to transfer the seat of war from Scotland to England, and, with Charles at their head, advanced without serious opposition to Worcester. Six days later, Cromwell came up with the invaders, and gained a decisive victory, September 3, 1651. 'The defeat of Worcester was a death-blow to the resistance of the king's party in Scotland.' After a series of romantic adventures, Charles managed to make good his escape to the continent, and remained for eight years in exile.

RESULT.—*The power of the Commonwealth established equally in England, Scotland, and Ireland.*

FIRST DUTCH WAR.

DATE—1652-54: PERIOD—PROTECTORATE OF CROMWELL.

CAUSES.—1. *Rejection of overtures from the English government by the Dutch republic for a strict alliance.*
 2. *Harbouring of many of the royalist fugitives by the Dutch.* 3. *Injury done to Dutch commerce by passing of Navigation Act, 1651.**

War was formally declared against Holland in July 1652. Admirals Blake and Ayscue commanded the English fleet; the Dutch were led by Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt. Before the actual declaration of war, a Dutch fleet of forty sail, under Van Tromp, appeared in the Downs, May 19, 1652. The Dutch commander was met by

* See Miscellaneous Observations on the Stuart Period.

Blake, who demanded that the Dutch should acknowledge the supremacy of England, as it had been previously recognised in the narrow seas. The refusal of Van Tromp led to an obstinate battle which lasted till night-fall, when the Dutch commander retired with the loss of two ships. Blake followed up his victory by seizing Dutch merchantmen, and attacking the Dutch herring-fishery vessels.

Van Tromp was superseded in his command by De Ruyter, who entered the English Channel, and fought a drawn battle with Admiral Ayscue, off Plymouth, August 16, 1652. Though strengthened by reinforcements, the Dutch were defeated by Blake and Penn in the Downs, September 28. On the other hand, Van Tromp, who had been restored to command, beat the English under Blake off the Goodwin Sands, November 28. Blake withdrew to the Thames, and the Dutch admiral celebrated his victory by sailing up the Channel with a broom at his mast-head, to indicate that he intended sweeping the English from the sea. Early in the following year, Blake resumed hostilities, and on the 18th February met the Dutch fleet convoying 300 merchantmen off Portland. The battle that ensued lasted three days, and in the end the English were completely victorious.

RESULT.—*Treaty of Westminster, 1654. By this treaty it was agreed: 1. 'That the Dutch should neither harbour nor give assistance to English royalists.' 2. 'That they should pay the same honour to the flag of the Commonwealth as was formerly given to the flag of the king.'*

THE RESTORATION.

DATE—1660.

CAUSE.—*General reaction in favour of royalty (represented in the person of Charles Stuart, eldest son of Charles I.).*

On the death of Cromwell, September 3, 1658, his son

Richard succeeded him in the protectorate,

DETAILS. and for five months the administration of affairs was successfully conducted by him.

But it soon became apparent that the 'mediocrity of his abilities,' and his peaceful retiring nature, were not likely to inspire the respect and obedience that had been accorded to his father. The army, then a power more than sufficient to deal with protector and parliament together, looked coldly on one who had never led them to victory—never drawn sword for the 'good cause.' Richard fell without a struggle, retired into private life, and died at an advanced age (1712). A *Council of Officers*, now possessing supreme authority, resolved to restore the Long Parliament. Scarcely more than seventy members met (these were known as the Rump), and it soon became manifest that they could not act in concord with the army. General Lambert and his soldiers went to Westminster, and forcibly expelled the members, 1659; the government thus again falling into the hands of the army. But it was no longer united, and its disunion saved the country from anarchy. 'The nation was now united, and the army divided.'

General George Monk was at this time commander of the forces in Scotland. He protested against the forcible expulsion of the Rump, and at the head of an army of 7000 veterans, marched to London. The army of General Lambert, which had been sent to oppose him, gradually dwindled away, without accomplishing its object. For

some time the reserve of Monk as to his ultimate designs kept the nation in a state of suspense, but at length he declared for a *Free Parliament*, and his determination was hailed with delight by the nation.

The new House of Commons, or rather *Convention*, since it had not been convoked by the king, consisted almost entirely of persons favourable to the royal cause. By the advice of Monk, communication was opened with Charles. The letter of Charles to the Convention, known as the *Declaration from Breda*, contained offers of forgiveness for all past offences which the parliament itself might not think fit for punishment, and toleration to all tender consciences in the matter of religion. The document was read amid shouts of applause, and a committee of Lords and Commons invited Charles to return and assume the royal authority. The king landed at Dover, and was received by General Monk (afterwards created Duke of Albemarle). He arrived in London on the 29th of May, and was hailed with the most extravagant demonstrations of welcome.*

RESULT.—*Continuation of arbitrary government under the Stuarts. The necessary haste with which the Restoration was accomplished, did not admit of an opportunity for exacting concessions from the king, and settling for ever those great national questions which had been disputed between Charles I. and his parliaments.*

* Though Charles was not *de facto* king of England till the 29th of May 1660, the years in which he reigned are computed from the death of his father, 30th January 1649.

SETTLEMENT OF THE NATION.

PERIOD—THE RESTORATION OF CHARLES II.

CAUSE.—*Changes in the constitution since the death of Charles I. 1649.*

The Convention Parliament sat till the close of the year 1660—it was legalised by the king's own ratification of an act for that purpose.

DETAILS. Its attention was occupied in the consideration of matters of great importance—among others, the settlement of the revenue, the disbanding of the army, the question of indemnity to those amenable to punishment, the restitution of the property of the crown and church, and the subject of religion.

The annual revenue was fixed at £1,200,000, and tonnage and poundage were voted to the king for life. The army was paid the arrears due, and all the soldiers, except a body-guard for the king, were discharged. This was the beginning of the regular army of England. By the passing of a bill of indemnity, all persons concerned in the late popular movements were pardoned, excepting a few who had been immediately concerned in bringing the late king to the block. The whole of the lands, royal and ecclesiastical, were recovered from the present proprietors without compensation. This step was taken by the advice of Lord Clarendon, the king's prime minister, who managed to take the settlement of this question out of the hands of parliament.

The second Long Parliament met May 8, 1661, and consisted almost entirely of royalists. 'The nation seemed intoxicated with the safety which they supposed themselves to have at length gained in a Restoration to the imperfect freedom they enjoyed before the Civil War.'

The first business of the new parliament was the settlement of the church question. This was done by a series of acts, which were deemed necessary to put the Established Church on a proper footing, and curb the party in opposition to it. An *Act of Uniformity* was passed 1662, requiring that all ministers should be ordained by bishops, and should use the Book of Common Prayer. Two thousand ministers refused obedience, and were turned out of their livings. These were afterwards known as Nonconformists. The *Conventicle Act*, 1664, prohibited, under heavy penalties, the holding of meetings for religious worship contrary to the prescribed form. The *Five Mile Act*, 1665, forbade Nonconformist ministers from coming within five miles of any corporate town, except in travelling.

RESULT.—*The slavish subserviency of parliament and people to the king after his restoration, led to absolute government before the close of his reign.*

THE GREAT PLAGUE AND FIRE OF LONDON.

DATE AND REIGN—1665–66, CHARLES II.

CAUSES.—1. *Excessive heat of the summer, 1665.* 2. *Narrowness of the streets of London, and the houses being built entirely of wood.*

1. *The great plague* first broke out in the neighbourhood of St Giles (1665), and from thence made a complete circuit of the city before its ravages were felt in the interior. The heat was excessive in June, and the number of deaths greatly increased during that month. Those who had the means left for the country. London was deserted; grass grew in the streets; upwards of one hundred thousand persons perished through this pestilence. Early in December,

the plague had so far abated that those who had left the metropolis ventured to return to their homes.

2. *The great fire* broke out in the autumn of the following year. It originated in the eastern and more crowded part of the city. The violence of the wind, and the combustible nature of the houses, favoured the progress of the fire, which continued for a week, and burned all that part of the city lying between the Tower and the Temple. Only a few individuals fell victims to the fire, but upwards of four hundred streets were destroyed. At one time, the flames formed a column a mile in diameter. For ten miles round the city, the night was as clear as day.

Though it was generally asserted that the fire was originated by the Roman Catholics, there was not a shadow of proof to bear out the charge. A tall pillar, with an inscription giving expression to this popular belief, was erected in the city.

RESULTS.—*In the end, the plague and fire proved beneficial. The streets were rebuilt much wider than before, and the removal of many filthy dens destroyed the seeds of almost annual pestilence.*

SECOND AND THIRD DUTCH WARS.

DATE AND REIGN—1665-74, CHARLES II.

CAUSES.—1. *Commercial rivalry between England and Holland.* 2. *The king's desire to obtain the supplies voted for war.* 3. *Signing of secret Treaty of Dover by Charles, 1670.*

War was formally declared, February 22, 1665. It was chiefly conducted by sea. In the month of June a great battle was fought off Lowestoft. The Dutch, under Admiral Opdam, were defeated, after a long engagement, by the English, under the Duke of York, brother to the king.

At the beginning of the year 1666, Louis XIV. of France, to forward his own interest, joined the Dutch against England. Prince Rupert and the Duke of Albemarle were placed at the head of the English fleet. Albemarle, with a much inferior force, encountered the Dutch, under De Ruyter, off the North Foreland. The battle that ensued lasted for four days (1st to 4th June); and had it not been for the timely arrival of Prince Rupert on the evening of the third day, the English fleet would have been destroyed. Another battle, fought in the same neighbourhood, July 25, resulted in favour of the English. The English commanders sailed in triumph along the Dutch shore, inflicting great damage. Owing to the domestic troubles of England, and the extravagance of the court, the prosecution of the war was not continued with vigour; and an inferior English fleet was sent to contend against the fine, well-manned ships of Holland. The enemy was not slow to take advantage of this weakness. A Dutch fleet, under De Ruyter, sailed up the Medway, burned the fortifications at Sheerness, and destroyed several vessels at Chatham, June 11, 1667. The Dutch did not push their advantage any further, but retired with the ebb-tide, apparently content with the humiliation they had inflicted. 'In the month of August, the peace of Breda ended a struggle discreditable in its origin, and inglorious in its termination.'

The real cause of the third Dutch war is to be found in the Treaty of Dover (see page 104). It commenced on 17th March 1672. A well-disputed battle was fought in Southwold Bay, off the coast of Suffolk. The English, though claiming the victory, obtained little real advantage. The Earl of Sandwich, one of the English commanders, perished, with most of his crew, in the *Royal James*. The war terminated with the Treaty of Westminster, February 28, 1674.

RESULT.—*Temporary decline of the naval supremacy of England. 'During these wars, the roar of foreign guns was heard for the first and last time by the citizens of London.'*

THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

DATE AND REIGN—1668, CHARLES II.

CAUSE.—*The aggressive policy of Louis XIV. of France.*

France was now, beyond question, the leading power in Europe. The French king was fortunate in his selection of ministers and generals, and possessed in himself many of the qualities of a great king. The power of Spain had been for some years declining, and she could not, without assistance, protect her vast territory from the invader. The chief ambition of Louis was to extend his dominions towards the Rhine, and obtain possession of the Spanish Netherlands, in which he was unsuccessfully opposed by Spain. Holland, now at the height of her power, regarded with jealousy the conquests acquired by the French; but, alone, she was unable to cope with the great armies of Louis. Sweden, by the valour of her former king, Gustavus Adolphus, had taken a high place among the nations of Europe; Russia, on the other hand, was hardly taken into account as a power of any importance; and the German princes were divided among themselves. Mainly through the representations of Sir William Temple, the English resident at Brussels, the Triple Alliance was formed between England, Holland, and Sweden, having for its object the checking of the French king's aggressive designs. The alliance pleased the English people greatly, 'gratifying alike national animosity and national pride.'

RESULT.—*Louis was afraid to encounter so formidable a coalition, with Spain as his enemy; the object of the alliance for the present was thus entirely successful. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, signed between France and Spain, 1668, seemed to promise a long peace to Europe.*

Note.—By the secret Treaty of Dover, 1670, the policy of England was reversed. For a money payment, and promise of aid in case of a rebellion, Charles agreed to aid Louis in his intended war with Holland, and to declare himself a Roman Catholic. England—that might have turned the scale against the ambitious projects of the king of France—was thus, until the Revolution of 1688, deprived of her position as a leading, independent European power.

THE POPISH PLOT.

DATE AND REIGN—1678–80, CHARLES II.

CAUSE.—*Popular prejudice against Roman Catholics, which induced Titus Oates and others to spread unfounded reports of secret plots 'designed by the papists.'*

Titus Oates, 'one of the most abandoned miscreants that ever appeared in history,' was the
 DETAILS. founder of this plot. It was alleged by him that the Catholics intended to destroy the religion, laws, liberties, and lives of the Protestants, and assassinate the king. Incredulous at first, Charles at length gave way to the popular belief as to the existence of this plot. Edward Coleman, secretary to the late Duchess of York, was one of the persons accused, and his papers were seized. It appeared from these there was a scheme to establish Roman Catholicism, but instead of the king being *murdered*, he was to be *bribed* by the king of France, and the design was altogether different

from Oates's pretended discovery. Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey, the magistrate who took Oates's depositions concerning the plot, was found dead in a ditch near Primrose Hill, with his own sword stuck through his body. It was at once concluded that he had been murdered by the Catholics, and public feeling against them ran higher than before. Many innocent Catholics were, in consequence, condemned to death, on the unsupported evidence of Oates. He was rewarded with a liberal pension for his services, and, as a natural result, other informers were soon forthcoming to force similar monstrous statements on the country, and with equal success. 'To be a Jesuit, or even a Catholic, was of itself a sufficient evidence of guilt.'

The temper of the House of Commons had been shewn as early as March 1673, when the Test Act * was passed, which imposed a religious oath for the purpose of excluding Roman Catholics from all offices in church and state. It was specially aimed at the Duke of York, a Romanist, heir-presumptive to the throne, and Lord High Admiral. One of the last victims of the Popish Plot was the venerable Viscount Stafford, who suffered (1680), solemnly protesting his innocence. The spectators responded by exclaiming: 'We believe you, my lord; God bless you, my lord.' It was evident a reaction had at length set in.

RESULTS.—1. *Destruction of many innocent Roman Catholics.* 2. *Introduction of the Exclusion Bill (1679), to exclude the Duke of York from the succession; it passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords. During the debates on this bill, the terms Tory and Whig were first used, the former being applied to the opponents of the bill.*

* This act remained in force till the reign of George IV. 1828.

RYE-HOUSE PLOT

DATE AND REIGN—1683, CHARLES II.

CAUSE.—*Absolute government of Charles.*

After the defeat of the Exclusion Bill, popular feeling began to change, and ‘a fit of slavishness befell

DETAILS. the English nation, as remarkable in its extent as the late fury against the Catholics.’

Taking advantage of this feeling, the king seized the charters of the city of London and other places, and otherwise subverted the liberties of the people. The leading *Exclusionists*, or *Whigs*, who formed the majority in the House of Commons, united with some of the Whig peers to arrange for bringing about a change in the absolute government of Charles. The Duke of Monmouth, Lord Russel, Algernon Sydney, and John Hampden (grandson of the great Hampden), were the principal promoters of the conspiracy. The court party dexterously contrived to connect this conspiracy of the Whig leaders with the Rye-house Plot, just then discovered, for the purpose of assassinating the king. Russel and Sydney were executed on very insufficient evidence, and the Whig party was broken up.

RESULT.—*By the execution of Russel and Sydney, the triumph of the king and court party over the Whig or popular party was complete, and Charles ruled absolutely till his death, February 6, 1685.*

REBELLIONS OF ARGYLE AND MONMOUTH.

DATE AND REIGN—1685, JAMES II.

CAUSE.—*Conspiracy of Whig refugees in Holland to overthrow the government of James II.*

During the latter part of the reign of Charles II.

Holland had been selected as a place of
DETAILS. refuge by those who had been connected with the Rye-house Plot, and others dissatisfied with the government of Charles. The Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles II. and the ‘darling of the English people,’ shared their exile.

James II. was a Roman Catholic, and on his accession it was concluded by the exiles that as neither England nor Scotland would be likely, on this account, to submit to his rule, a favourable opportunity had arrived for a simultaneous invasion of both countries.

Monmouth was at first unwilling to connect himself with the conspiracy, but at length yielded to the importunities of the leading refugees, ‘men, in general, of fiery temper and weak judgment.’

It was decided that Monmouth should head the expedition to England, and the Earl of Argyle that to Scotland.

Argyle landed in the Western Highlands, May 17, but met with little encouragement. The officers of his army could not agree on any definite plan of action, and meanwhile his vessels with stores were captured by the enemy. It was finally resolved to advance on Glasgow, in the hope of being joined by the persecuted Presbyterians in that part of the country. After crossing the Leven, near Dumbarton, Argyle found his small army nearly surrounded by the royal forces, and proposed staking all on the issue of a battle. The majority of his chiefs thought

it advisable to give the royalists the slip, and a disastrous retreat ensued. Satisfied of the failure of his expedition, Argyle sought safety in flight, but was captured, and executed at Edinburgh, June 30. He met his death with serene fortitude. Severe punishment awaited his followers. Many of his clan—the Campbells—were executed without trial, and the country for thirty miles round Inverary was wasted.

Monmouth landed unopposed at Lyme, in Dorsetshire, June 11, with a small force, ill provided with arms and money. He was enthusiastically welcomed by the lower orders as the champion of the Protestant religion, but no persons of influence joined him.

The declaration, setting forth the objects of the rebellion, was a 'libel of the lowest class,' and injured, rather than advanced, the cause of *Monmouth*. The duke advanced to Taunton at the head of 4000 men, where he was proclaimed king, June 20. He thus gave offence to the adherents of Mary, daughter of James and wife of William, Prince of Orange, who was beyond question the next in the succession.

At Bridgewater, crowds of peasants joined him, and his force might have been doubled had it been possible to provide them with arms. Arrived at Frome, news of the failure of Argyle's expedition was received, and from that moment *Monmouth* gave way to despondency. The royal army sent to oppose him, under the Earl of Faversham and Lord Churchill (afterwards Duke of Marlborough), encamped on the plain of Sedgemoor, about three miles from Bridgewater. An unsuccessful attempt on the part of the rebels to surprise the royalists by a night attack, led to a general engagement—namely, the *Battle of Sedgemoor*, 6th July 1685, the last battle fought on English ground. Early in the engagement, the cavalry of the rebels, under Lord Grey, beat a

disgraceful retreat, but the brunt of the battle was bravely sustained by the undisciplined peasants, 'who fought as if every man expected a kingdom for his reward.'

Their defeat was hastened by the cowardly flight of Monmouth. More than a thousand of the rebels were left dead on the field of battle. Three days later Monmouth was taken prisoner, at Cranbourne Chase, in Hampshire. He made an abject submission to the king, who, though bent on his destruction, granted him an interview. He was beheaded on Tower Hill, July 15. His unfortunate followers were punished with the utmost rigour. Judge Jeffreys, 'a man whose heart had been hardened to that temper which tyrants require in their worst implements,' was sent down on a special commission to try the offenders. In his '*bloody circuit*,' 320 persons were hanged, and many others sold as slaves to the West Indian plantations; others were whipped and imprisoned, and ruined by heavy fines.

RESULT.—*Power of James at its height. The power so acquired, however, was of an unwholesome kind. The high-handed measures of James raised much discontent in England, while the barbarous persecution of the Presbyterian Covenanters in Scotland, which had lasted since early in the reign of Charles II. roused sentiments of hatred in that country.*

ATTACK ON THE UNIVERSITIES.

DATE AND REIGN—1686-7, JAMES II.

CAUSE.—*Design of James to re-establish Roman Catholicism in England.*

The universities of Oxford and Cambridge had, during the contests of Charles I. with his parliament, the Civil War, and the government of Cromwell, remained devoted in their attachment to the House of Stuart. But James was signally mistaken in supposing that this loyalty would allow him to infringe the ancient rights and liberties of the universities.

In furtherance of his grand design—the re-establishment of the Catholic religion—to strike a blow at the universities, was to strike at the very foundation of English Protestantism. A royal letter commanded the senate of Cambridge to admit Alban Francis, a Benedictine monk, to the degree of Master of Arts, he, as a Roman Catholic, not being able to take the necessary oaths (February 1687). The university accordingly refused to admit him; whereupon the vice-chancellor, Pechell, and eight others—among whom was the celebrated Isaac Newton—were summoned to attend the new High Commission Court at Westminster.

The infamous Judge Jeffreys sat at the head of the board, ‘and gave loose to all that insolence which had long been the terror of the Old Bailey.’ The defendants were thrust out of court without a hearing, and the vice-chancellor lost his office.

Oxford was treated with greater severity. About the close of the year 1686, a Roman Catholic was appointed to the deanery of Christ Church. In 1687, the president

of Magdalene College, one of the richest foundations in Europe, died; and James appointed one Anthony Farmer, a Romanist of more than doubtful character, to occupy the vacant post. A petition was forwarded to the king, praying for a new election, or a new nomination, but without success. The university then resolved that it was necessary to proceed at once with a new election; and their choice fell on John Hough, 'a man of eminent virtue and prudence.' The Court of High Commission pronounced the election of Hough null and void, but nothing more was said about Farmer. Parker, bishop of Oxford, a suspected Romanist, was next recommended; but the fellows declined to recognise him. They were, in consequence, expelled their college, and declared incapable of holding spiritual preferment.

RESULT.—*First step in the alienation from the king of the great body of the clergy of the Church of England, hitherto the steady supporters of his dynasty.*

TRIAL OF THE SEVEN BISHOPS.

DATE AND REIGN—1688, JAMES II.

CAUSE.—*Refusal of the bishops to read the 'Declaration for Liberty of Conscience;' and the presentation by them of a petition to the king, explaining the grounds of their refusal.*

In 1687, James issued a declaration of 'general indulgence,' which made nonconformity to the established religion no longer penal.

DETAILS. A second declaration, similar to the former one, was issued the next year; but with the proviso that the clergy should read it in their churches on two successive Sundays. This would seem at first sight only a

reasonable and just concession ; but in making it James acted *without the consent of parliament*, and solely on his own responsibility.

It was generally suspected that the declaration was issued to unite the Protestant dissenters with the king, and the Roman Catholic party against their former persecutor, the Church of England. Many of the leading Nonconformists—notably Baxter and Howe—declined to give in any address of thanks for the indulgence, and objected to the exercise of the dispensing power.* The primate, Sancroft, and six other bishops—namely, Ken, White, Lake, Turner, Lloyd, and Trelawney—appended their names to a petition, ‘praying to be excused from being parties to the publication of an illegal declaration in the house of God,’ and presented it in person to the king. Enraged at this opposition, James determined to proceed against the petitioning prelates, for presenting him with ‘a false, malicious, and seditious libel.’ The declaration was only read by four clergymen in London ; and out of ten thousand ministers in England, only a few hundreds obeyed the command of the king.

On the 8th of June, the bishops were sent to the Tower. Popular sympathy in their behalf became intense ; they were even visited during their confinement by Nonconformist divines. On the 29th June, commenced one of the most important state trials in English history. ‘Such an auditory had never before, and has never since, been assembled in the Court of King’s Bench.’

Chief-justice Wright, and his three colleagues, Allybone, Holloway, and Powell, presided at the trial. Against the law officers of the crown was arrayed all the

* Power claimed by king to *dispense with or suspend laws*, without consent of parliament.

most eminent legal talent of the day. Pemberton and Somers specially distinguished themselves on the side of the bishops. The latter submitted that '*sedition* the petition could not be, nor could it possibly stir up sedition in the minds of the people, because it was presented to the king in private, and alone; *false* it could not be, for the matter of it was true; there could be nothing of *malice*, for the occasion was not sought, but the matter was pressed upon them; and a *libel* it could not be, because the intent was innocent, and they kept within the bounds set up by the law, that gives the subject leave to apply to his prince by petition when he is aggrieved.'

The chief-justice argued that every petition calculated to disturb the government was a libel; and he was followed on the same side by Allybone. Holloway and Powell summed up in favour of the bishops, for which they were subsequently dismissed from office. Owing to the obstinacy of Arnold, the king's brewer, the jury did not return into court with their verdict till the following morning. The verdict, 'Not guilty,' was hailed with an enthusiasm in the crowded court, that extended equally to all parts of England when the result of the trial became known. A fortnight before the trial, a son and heir was born to James. This increased the public excitement, as the chance of a Protestant succeeding to the throne (in the person of his elder daughter, Mary) now appeared lost.

RESULT.—*Complete alienation from the king of a loyal clergy and a loyal people.*

REVOLUTION OF 1688.

DATE AND REIGN—1688, JAMES II.

CAUSE.—*Arbitrary conduct of James in his attempts to re-establish Roman Catholicism in England.*—IMMEDIATE CAUSES: 1. *Trial of the seven bishops.* 2. *Birth of a male heir to the crown of England, June 1688.*

The dissatisfaction with the king's government extended to all classes, excepting the small body of
 DETAILS. the Roman Catholics, and even some of these thought the king had acted imprudently. Pope Innocent XI. had advised him, at the commencement of his reign, to attempt nothing rashly in his desire to effect the reconciliation of England with the Holy See. This counsel was disregarded, and blinded by obstinacy and religious zeal, the king rapidly lost the confidence of a loyal nation. The attack on the universities, the trial of the seven bishops, the dismissal of counsellors, whose only fault was that they refused to please the king in matters of religion, plainly indicated that James would rest satisfied with nothing less than the re-establishment of the papal ascendancy in England.

The sensible and more prudent part of the nation had for some time kept their eyes fixed on William, Prince of Orange. The mother of William, Prince of Orange, was Mary, only daughter of Charles I.; and as William married his cousin, Mary, eldest daughter of James II. he was doubly connected with the reigning family in England. In the event of James II. not leaving a male heir, his wife Mary would be the direct successor to the throne.

The Prince and Princess of Orange were Protestants.

The prince was regarded as the champion of the Protestant cause in Europe. Until the birth of a son to James (June 1688), William contented himself with quietly watching the course of events in England, and urged the exercise of caution and patience on the part of his friends ; but now when he saw himself excluded from the long hoped-for succession, he laid aside his reserve for the purpose of taking a bold and active interference in English affairs. On the 30th June, the day of the acquittal of the seven bishops, a few noblemen and gentlemen—who had previously been in correspondence with William, and kept him acquainted with English affairs—signed a formal invitation to him to invade the country. The subscribers were the Earls Danby, Devonshire, Shrewsbury, Lord Lumley, Compton, bishop of London, Admiral Russel, and Henry Sydney. The invitation was accepted, and preparations were made, with great energy and secrecy, for a descent on England. Though warned of his impending danger by Louis XIV. James neglected, till too late, to make the needful preparations for defence. When at length informed by his minister in Holland that he might speedily expect a formidable invasion, he endeavoured to strengthen his position by retracing some of his arbitrary steps. But it was easily seen his concessions were extorted by fear, and they were therefore coldly received by the nation.

On the 5th of November, the forces of William disembarked, unopposed, at Torbay, in Devonshire. He published a declaration, enumerating the grievances inflicted on the nation by the government, and stated that the object of his invasion was to secure their redress, and a free parliament. The invaders at first received little encouragement, but the desertion of Lord Cornbury, son of Earl Clarendon, was the signal for numerous defections from James—among others, the Duke of Grafton,

Lord Churchill, the king's daughter Anne, and her husband, Prince George of Denmark.

The king, who had advanced as far as Salisbury with his army, found himself deserted by almost every person of influence. Bereft of all hope of successfully encountering his rival, he retreated to London, and on the 23d of December, embarked at Rochester for France. Louis XIV. honourably received the unfortunate monarch, and extended his hospitality to him until September 16, 1701, when the last king of the Stuart line died in exile.

William entered London on the 18th of December, and called an assembly, known as the Convention, which came to the resolution, 'that James having endeavoured to subvert the constitution, and having abdicated the kingdom, the throne was vacant.' They further resolved 'that the country could not, consistently with its security, be governed by a Roman Catholic.' The Convention next passed a bill, 'in which they settled the crown on the Prince and Princess of Orange, the sole administration to remain in the prince.' The crown was to devolve first on the children of Mary, then on those of her sister Anne, and these failing, on the children of William by any other wife.

RESULT.—*Ultimate overthrow of the Stuart dynasty, and 'termination of the great struggle between sovereign and parliament (which had lasted since the reign of John), in the adjustment and firm foundation of the three great estates of the realm—namely, King, Lords, and Commons, upon whose due balance, and mutual check, the strength of our constitution mainly depends.'*

REBELLIONS IN SCOTLAND AND IRELAND.

DATE AND REIGN—1689-91, WILLIAM III.

CAUSE.—*Revolution of 1688.*

1. REBELLION IN SCOTLAND.

Although the estates of Scotland ratified the dethronement of James II. there was still a strong party in Scotland in his favour, led by the Duke of Gordon, governor of Edinburgh Castle, and Viscount Dundee. The duke for some months held the castle for the late king; but the smallness of the garrison, and scarcity of provisions, compelled him finally to surrender on honourable terms (June 1689). Dundee raised an insurrection in the Highlands.

General Mackay was sent by William to suppress the Highland rising. He encountered Dundee at Killiecrankie; and although the royalist forces were greatly superior, 'it was impossible for a victory to be more complete than that gained by the Highlanders' (July 27, 1689). But Dundee was slain at the moment of triumph, and the victory proved therefore worse than defeat, as with Dundee expired all the hopes of James II. in Scotland.

To buy over the Highland chiefs, who were still restless, a sum of £16,000 was sent to the Earl of Breadalbane. At the same time, an order was issued, commanding all the Highland chiefs, under pain of fire and sword, to give in their submission to the new government on, or before, the 31st of December 1691. Macdonald of Glencoe was unavoidably prevented from fulfilling this condition; and through the hatred of Breadalbane and Sir John Dalrymple, thirty-eight of the Macdonalds, including the chief and his wife, were

treacherously murdered within their native glen, 13th February 1692. The *Massacre of Glencoe* has left a stain on the reputation of William III. as, though the revolting circumstances of the slaughter were chiefly owing to feelings of private revenge, the king neglected to punish the authors of the inhuman deed.

2. REBELLION IN IRELAND.

In Ireland, the resistance to the new government was far more formidable. As Roman Catholics, the Irish people were warmly attached to James, whose cause they regarded as their own.

Louis XIV. supplied the exiled monarch with arms, ammunition, and money. James landed in Ireland on March 12, 1689, and soon found himself at the head of a large, though, on the whole, ill-disciplined army. All the country, except Ulster, where Protestantism prevailed, speedily fell into his hands. Londonderry, with a feeble garrison, sustained the most memorable siege in the annals of the British Isles. It lasted one hundred and five days, when the stronghold of the Irish Protestants was relieved by General Kirke (July 30, 1689). On the same day, the Enniskilleners defeated some of James's troops at Newton-Butler.

William sent Marshal Schomberg to Ireland on August 13, 1689, with 16,000 men. Carrickfergus, Belfast, Newry, and Dundalk were taken; but the marshal had not sufficient confidence in his troops to hazard a general engagement. William himself landed at Carrickfergus, June 14, 1690; and, united with those of Schomberg, the royal troops amounted to 36,000 men. James was able to bring nearly as many men into the field; and the two armies came in sight of each other on the opposite sides of the river Boyne.

The *Battle of the Boyne* (July 1, 1690) was completely in favour of William, though the veteran Schomberg fell in the action. James, who had taken no part in the encounter, made a hasty retreat to France. The war was brought to a close in 1691. General Ginckel, the royalist leader, defeated St Ruth, a brave French officer, who fell in the engagement, at Aghrim (July 12). Limerick, the refuge of the remains of the Catholic force, after a long defence, capitulated on the 3d October. The terms of the capitulation, known as the *Treaty of Limerick*, seemed to secure the Catholic population in all desirable rights and privileges. King William was, however, unable to procure a ratification of the treaty by parliament, and the Irish Catholics were placed in a worse position than they were before the war.

RESULT.—*Completion of the Revolution settlement in Scotland and Ireland.*

WAR WITH FRANCE.

DATE AND REIGN—1691-97, WILLIAM III.

CAUSES.—1. *To keep in check the ambitious policy of Louis XIV.; 2. Aid granted by Louis to the exiled Stuarts.*

The German emperor, the princes of the empire, the Dutch republic, Savoy and Spain, united
 DETAILS. with England to thwart the aggressive policy of Louis XIV. Though the Emperor Leopold was the nominal head of the confederation, the English king was its leading spirit, and commanded its armies in the field. The chief scene of action was the Netherlands.

Louis claimed the Flemish territories in right of his wife. There were few general battles; it was a war of sieges and manœuvring.

The Count de Tourville, a French admiral, defeated the Anglo-Dutch fleet under Lord Torrington off Beachy Head (1690), and thus gained the command of the English Channel, but he withdrew without accomplishing anything of importance.

Aided by the Dutch, the English, under Admiral Russel, gained a great victory over the French at *La Hogue* (May 19, 1692). This victory was a death-blow to the hopes of James of again acquiring the crown of England. The war in Flanders, though generally unfavourable to the arms of William, yet resulted in keeping in check the great armies of Louis. At *Steinkirk* (July 24, 1692), William was defeated by Marshal Luxembourg, and again at *Landen* (July 29, 1693), 'the most sanguinary battle fought in Europe during the seventeenth century.' But Louis purchased his victories dearly. After the battle of Landen, the English king effected a masterly retreat, and the only advantage accruing to the French from their last victory was the capture of Charleroi. William invested Namur (1695), and the fortress was surrendered by Marshal Boufflers (2d September). 'The tide which had hitherto run almost uninterruptedly in favour of France, had clearly turned.' The exhausted state of the French exchequer led to the termination of the war. On the 20th of September 1697, the *Treaty of Ryswick* was signed. By this treaty, William was acknowledged king of England, and nearly all the places in the Spanish dominions were to be restored.

RESULTS.—1. *Commencement of the decline of the power of Louis XIV.* 2. *Foundation of the national debt of England.*

SECOND ACT OF SETTLEMENT (1701).

William III. and Mary having left no children, the crown descended to Mary's younger sister, Anne, married to Prince George of Denmark. All Anne's children died in infancy, except William, Duke of Gloucester, who lived to the age of eleven, dying July 30, 1700. This event necessitated a new settlement of the crown, and, in 1701, it was determined that the descendants of Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. should succeed to the English throne, if they were Protestants. From this act, the present reigning family (House of Hanover) derives its right to the throne.

The table on Page 122 gives (1.) the descent of the last of the Stuarts from James I.; and (2.) the descent of Queen Victoria from the same monarch.

WAR OF SPANISH SUCCESSION.

DATE AND REIGN—1702-13, ANNE.

CAUSES.—1. *Succession of Philip V. grandson of Louis XIV. to the throne of Spain.* 2. *Louis acknowledged the claim of the Pretender (son of James II.) to the throne of England.*

William III. had, in 1698 and 1700, concluded treaties with Louis XIV. for the *partition* of the

DETAILS. Spanish territories, on the decease of Charles II. King of Spain, who had no issue, and was in a declining state of health. In the event of Spain falling into the hands of the reigning family of France—already the most powerful country in Europe—it was naturally concluded by the English and other governments, that the peace of Europe could not be established on a permanent basis. On the death of Charles (November 1700), it was found that he had appointed Philip, Duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin, to be his successor; and Louis XIV. lost no time in enforcing the claims of his grandson. Germany, Savoy, Portugal, and Holland united with England in the Grand Alliance against France and Spain, in behalf of the Archduke Charles of Austria, whom the allies recognised as King of Spain. War was formally declared, May 4, 1702, and the Earl (afterwards Duke) of Marlborough was placed at the head of the allied forces. The war was carried on simultaneously in Spain and the Low Countries.

1. WAR IN SPAIN.

1704. Gibraltar taken by Sir George Rooke. It has ever since remained in the possession of the English.

1705. Barcelona taken by Lord Peterborough. All Catalonia and Valencia submitted to the Archduke Charles, who, for nearly two years, had borne the title of Charles III. of Spain.

1707. *Battle of Almanza*. The English, Dutch, and Portuguese, defeated by the Duke of Berwick, a natural son of James II. and a commander of consummate skill. 'The loss was such as Marlborough or Eugene could scarcely have retrieved, and was fatal to the cause of the allies in Spain.'

1708. Minorca taken by General Stanhope.

1710. Charles's general, Staremborg, defeated the forces of Philip at Almenara (July 27), and again at Saragossa (August 20). In consequence of these successes, Louis XIV. sent one of his most able generals, the Duke of Vendôme, to conduct the war in the Peninsula, and he was soon at the head of 25,000 men. Stanhope was surprised by Philip and Vendôme at the town of Brihuega (December 8). After a gallant resistance, he surrendered with his whole army of 5000 men (December 9).

Battle of Villa Viciosa, December 10. Staremborg claimed the victory, but the real advantage was with the Spaniards. Staremborg retreated to Barcelona with the loss of half his force.

2. WAR IN THE LOW COUNTRIES.

1703. Bonn and other places taken by Marlborough.

1704. *Battle of Blenheim*, in Bavaria (August 13). Marlborough and Prince Eugene gained a great victory over the French and Bavarians. The Gallo-Bavarian army lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners, 35,000 men, and Marshal Tallard, the French commander, fell into the hands of the victors.

1706. *Battle of Ramillies*, in Belgium (May 23).

Marlborough defeated the French under Marshal Villeroy: this victory secured to the allies most of the Spanish Netherlands.

1708. *Battle of Oudenarde*, East Flanders—called the Key to Flanders (July 11). Marlborough and Eugene defeated Marshal Vendôme. Lille surrendered after this victory, and before the close of the year the whole of Flanders fell into the hands of the victors.

1709. *Battle of Malplaquet*, a town of Hainault in France (September 12). The allies victorious, but the loss of the victors greater than that of the vanquished. By the influence of the Tories, who were opposed to the war, Marlborough, a Whig, was removed from the command (1711); and the Duke of Ormond was appointed his successor, with instructions to take no active part in the contest. The English now exhibited as much solicitude for peace, as if their campaigns, instead of having been a series of triumphs, had been continually disastrous.

The *Treaty of Utrecht* was signed by all the allies except the Emperor of Germany, April 11, 1713. The terms most nearly affecting England were:

1. Louis recognised the succession of the House of Hanover, and engaged to give no help to the Pretender.
2. England was to retain Hudson's Bay and Straits, the peninsula of Nova Scotia, and the islands of St Christopher and Newfoundland.
3. England was to keep Gibraltar and Minorca.

RESULT.—‘*Britain obtained nothing tangible by all her exertions, except the possession of Gibraltar and Minorca, and the privilege of being employed exclusively to carry slaves to the Spanish American colonies. After eleven years of expense, carnage, and misery, Europe returned to nearly the same condition as it was before*

hostilities began;’ and the great object for which the war had been undertaken—namely, the exclusion of the Bourbons from the throne of Spain—was not attained.

UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

DATE AND REIGN—MAY 1, 1707, ANNE.

IMMEDIATE CAUSE.—*Passing of the Act of Security by the Scottish Parliament, 1704.*

The desirability of the union of Scotland with England had occupied the attention of William III.;
DETAILS. and Anne recommended the union in her first speech in parliament.

Commissioners were appointed, but they failed to come to any agreement, and the design was therefore for a time abandoned.

The passing of the *Act of Security* in the Scottish parliament (1704) shewed the necessity for immediate action. This act provided that the successor of her Majesty in Scotland should not be the same with the individual adopted by the English parliament, unless there should be a free communication of trade between the countries, and the affairs of Scotland thoroughly secured from English influence.

The Act of Security was carried by a decided majority, but the queen’s commissioner refused the royal assent to so violent a statute. Another act was carried at the same time for putting Scotland under arms. This had the effect of inducing the English parliament to garrison the northern towns, and a rupture seemed imminent.

Meanwhile, the ministers of the queen had, not without difficulty, obtained an act to enable her Majesty to

nominate new commissioners for the arrangement of the union. Thirty-one commissioners were appointed on each side, nearly all of them being the friends of the court and of the Revolution Settlement. There was consequently little difficulty experienced in coming to an agreement favourable to the supporters of the union (July 23, 1706). The chief terms of the union were :

1. That the Electress Sophia of Hanover, and her heirs, if Protestants, should succeed to the crown of the United Kingdom.

2. That Scotland should be represented in the imperial parliament, sitting in London, by sixteen elective peers and forty-five members of the Commons.

3. That all British ports and colonies should be opened to Scottish traders.

4. That while the laws of public policy should be the same for both countries, those relating to property and private rights should be preserved unaltered, except for the good of the Scottish people.

5. That the Court of Session and other Scottish tribunals should remain unchanged.

6. That the Church of Scotland should be maintained as already by law established.

Much opposition was shewn relative to the articles when they came before the Scottish parliament. The chief objections urged against the union were the loss of independence and increased taxation. By distribution of money, however, the union was carried through parliament, and from the 1st May 1707 the two countries formed one state, under the title of the Kingdom of Great Britain.

RESULTS.—1. *Effectual bar to the restoration of the Stuarts in Scotland.* 2. *Increase of the commerce, wealth, and greatness of Scotland.*

Sir W. Scott says : ‘ Although the passions and prejudices of mankind could for a time delay and interrupt the advantages to be derived from the union, ultimately there was awakened a spirit of industry formerly unknown in Scotland. The two kingdoms have been gradually forgetting former subjects of discord, and uniting cordially, as one people, in the improvement and defence of the island which they inhabit.’

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS.

The Stuarts.—Marjory, the daughter of Robert Bruce, married Walter, the Lord High Steward of Scotland. He was the sixth of his family who held that high office, and they had on that account acquired the surname of Stewart, or Stuart. The son of Marjory and Walter Stuart ascended the throne of Scotland, 1370, under the title of Robert II. He was the first king of that ill-fated race, which in the person of James VI. came to rule England also (1603). The six Stuart sovereigns who governed England and Scotland reigned one hundred and eleven years—namely, from 1603 to 1714.

Government under the Stuarts.—The leading features of the period are : (1) ‘ The kings striving for absolute power,’ (2) ‘ Parliament resisting,’ (3) ‘ Final triumph of parliament.’

All the Stuarts appeared to be haunted by an insane desire for absolute power, and to this single cause may be traced nearly the whole of their misfortunes. Parliament systematically resisted them in their attempts to impose absolute government on the nation, and its final triumph was concurrent with the overthrow of the dynasty, followed by a legislative agreement with the succeeding one

(Hanoverian), to observe constitutional government. Thus ended the contest between the crown and parliament, which had lasted for five centuries. *Magna Charta* under John; the *Petition of Right* under Charles I.; the *Habeas Corpus Act* * in the time of Charles II.; the *Revolution* and the *Declaration of Rights* at the accession of William III. and the *Act of Settlement* towards the close of his reign, 'may be usefully remembered as denoting stages of advance, rallying, or triumph in the history of our civil liberties.'

Religious toleration was also at length secured, and the claims of conscience regarded. The first two monarchs of the Hanoverian line could indeed ill afford to dispense with the support of the Nonconformists—a rising power in the country—when their crown was placed in constant danger by the attempts of the Stuarts to regain their hereditary position.

In the reign of William III. a remarkable change was made in the executive government. It had previously been the custom for the king to lay all matters of importance before the Privy Council, which consisted of the great officers of state, and such as he might summon to it. In short, the advisers of the king were not confined to one or other of the great political parties—Whig and Tory. It was therefore not uncommon for officers of the crown to violently oppose one another, and they sometimes even took part in prosecuting their colleagues. The new institution, the *Ministry* or *Cabinet*, which arose after the Revolution, is now an essential element of our government. The cabinet is composed of members of both Houses of the same political party; the present number of

* This act became law in 1679. Its object was to prevent persons from suffering lengthened imprisonment without being brought to trial.

members is sixteen. The head of the cabinet is called the prime-minister. In all matters of importance the cabinet is supposed to reflect the opinions of the majority of the House of Commons. If the parliamentary majority are dissatisfied, they have merely to declare 'that they have ceased to trust the cabinet, and to ask for a cabinet they *can* trust.' Each member of the cabinet conducts the ordinary business of his department without reference to his colleagues, but all business that is likely to come on in discussion in either House is considered by the cabinet collectively.

Language and Literature.—The strong party-spirit of the period of the civil war and the Revolution, while on the one hand affording scope to the writers of 'fierce invective and scurrilous abuse,' had on the other the effect of giving to the language a power and expression before unknown. The intense political differences of the times were reflected in verse and prose by powerful displays of eloquence and argument.

The period immediately following the Restoration was unfavourable to the production of instructive and healthy literature. The reign of Anne is, on the contrary, noted as a brilliant literary period, and has been called the Augustan age of English literature.

The chief poetical writers of the Stuart period were John Milton, author of *Paradise Lost* and *Paradise Regained* ('Milton's name alone would suffice to render an age memorable'); Ben Jonson, Cowley, Butler, and Dryden. Jonson and Dryden were 'poets laureate.' 'Dryden occupies the first place in the second rank of our poets.' His principal works are *Absalom* and *Achitophel*, a political satire, and *Alexander's Feast*, an ode.

Among the prose writers of the time, Chillingworth, Selden, Jeremy Taylor, Burnet, Bunyan, Clarendon, Addison, and Steele stand first. The *History of My Own*

Times, and *History of the Church of England*, are Burnet's most popular works. Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* is the most popular religious work in the English language.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, periodical papers were first issued. Of these the *Tatler*, *Spectator*, and *Guardian* were the principal, and Addison and Steele the most distinguished contributors. Newspapers generally were improved in their style and character. Printing-presses were scarce, and books consequently dear.

Progress of Science.—The period between the Restoration and the Revolution is remarkable for the great advancement made in science. Locke, author of the celebrated *Essay on the Human Understanding*, devoted his great powers to the study of mental science. Astronomy was successfully studied by Flamsteed, Halley, and Bradley. The Royal Society was founded in 1660, and incorporated by royal charter 1662. Galileo invented the pendulum. To Sir Isaac Newton belongs the honour of founding physical astronomy. He was perhaps the most profound philosopher the world ever produced. James Gregory, who died 1675, constructed the first reflecting telescope. Kepler investigated the laws, distances, and revolutions of the planets. These discoveries in astronomy led to corresponding improvements in navigation, geometry, &c.

The Navy.—The nation had become justly proud of its navy, which had destroyed the Spanish Armada, and under Blake had put down the naval supremacy of Holland. In 1666, the royal navy amounted to 62,594 tons; in 1688, 101,892 tons. But the money voted for its support was diverted from its proper channel by Charles II.; hence the naval disasters and disgrace inflicted on the English by the Dutch in this reign. Six hundred thousand pounds were voted at one time for the building of thirty new men-of-war. Scarcely

any of these were fit for use. They were built of such rotten timber as to be absolutely unseaworthy.

James II. took much interest in naval affairs. When Duke of York he was Lord High Admiral, and distinguished himself in the wars against the Dutch. He invented a system of signals, and the attack in line, by which so many victories were obtained.

Trade and Commerce.—The extension and improvement of manufactures were greatly promoted by the persecution of the Protestants in France and the Spanish Netherlands, many of whom sought refuge in this country. The chief branch of home industry was still the woollen manufacture. It was chiefly carried on in the western counties; the chief town was Stroud. In the north, there were five clothing towns, Bradford, Wakefield, Leeds, Huddersfield, and Halifax. A large quantity of woollen goods was disposed of at the great fairs of Stourbridge. Birmingham began to be celebrated for its hardware. William III. made it a *dépôt* for the supply of fire-arms.

The cotton manufacture was beginning to extend itself in Manchester and the surrounding towns. The manufacture of silk was improved and extended by the settlement of a number of French refugees in Spitalfields, in the east of London.

‘The smelting of iron languished, as parliament had interfered to prohibit the manufacturers burning timber, and it was not then customary to employ coal for the purpose.’ London, Bristol, Ipswich, Newcastle, Yarmouth, and Liverpool were the principal ports.

In 1688, Liverpool had neither harbour nor quay. Woollen cloths, tin, timber, and coal were the chief exports; and wines, spices, coffee, hides, and silk were imported. Tea was also imported, but in very small quantities.

Chiefly through animosity to the Dutch, the *Navigation Act* was passed, 1651, which enacted that European goods should be imported in English vessels alone, or in those of the country from which the goods came. This was very injurious to the Dutch, who greatly depended on their carrying trade.

Architecture and Building.—Great improvements were made in the higher branches of domestic architecture. Charles I. employed the celebrated Inigo Jones—who introduced the Palladian style—as the architect of his buildings. Charles encouraged architecture and the fine arts. Inigo Jones, who died 1652, found an illustrious successor in Sir Christopher Wren, who built about fifty churches in London, in addition to St Paul's Cathedral. Early in the period, the Strand began to be covered with commodious residences, instead of mud-walled and thatched cottages. After the Great Fire, brick and stone buildings replaced those of timber and plaster.

Amusements.—Under the rigid rule of the Commonwealth, national amusements were greatly curtailed. With the Restoration came back the old sports of village wakes and Whitsuntide, the jollity of harvest-homes and Christmas. The theatres were also reopened. The theatrical writers of the period were numerous. Amongst them were Ben Jonson, Wycherley, Congreve, Vanbrugh, Farquhar, Dryden, and Otway. Skating, horse-racing, and boat-racing were favourite diversions. Bear-baiting and bull-baiting were forbidden in the *Book of Sports*.

Population.—The population of the country at the close of the period was variously estimated at from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 millions. The population of London was nearly half a million. Bristol, the second city, had a population of 29,000; and Norwich, the third city, about a thousand less. Manchester had only a population of about 6000.

Liverpool was little more than a village; its first dock was built in 1706.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

BORN 1552—DIED 1618.

Sir Walter Raleigh was born at Hayes, in Devonshire. He was educated at Oxford, and at an early age went to France, to take part in the Huguenot wars. He was afterwards employed in the service of the Prince of Orange, and subsequently joined with his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in an unsuccessful attempt to colonise a part of North America. In 1580, Raleigh served with the army in Ireland, and, obtaining the favour of Elizabeth on his return, was knighted, and placed successively in several offices of trust and profit.

When the Invincible Armada attempted to invade England (1588), he was intrusted with an important command, his name being associated with those of Howard, Drake, and Frobisher, as one of the chief heroes on that memorable occasion. On the accession of James I. Raleigh was treated with comparative neglect, and was, probably on this account, induced to take part in a plot to place on the throne the Lady Arabella Stuart, a cousin of the king, and descended equally from Henry VII. On the discovery of the plot, he was committed to the Tower, where, for more than twelve years, he beguiled the long days of his captivity by writing a *History of the World*. As the 'price of his freedom,' he volunteered to disclose a gold mine in Guiana, a country discovered by him about twenty-three years before. He was accordingly released, and intrusted with the command of an expedition to proceed to Guiana. Disregarding the right of discovery, the Spaniards in the meantime had taken

possession of part of Guiana. The English adventurers came into collision with them, and burned the town of St Thomas, but failed to discover the gold mine.

On Raleigh's return to England, King James, to please the court of Spain, ordered him to be beheaded on the old charge of conspiracy, October 29, 1618. He met his fate with manly dignity and fortitude ; and 'no measure of James's reign was attended with more public dissatisfaction.'

FRANCIS, LORD BACON.

BORN 1561—DIED 1626.

This great philosopher, statesman, and courtier was the son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, Lord Keeper to Elizabeth. He was educated at Cambridge, where he greatly distinguished himself, and in 1592 entered parliament as member for Middlesex. Owing to the jealousies of the Cecils, he gained small promotion during the reign of Elizabeth. On the accession of James I. he sought and gained the good opinion of that monarch, and advancement rapidly followed.

He was knighted on the coronation day, and in 1604 was appointed king's counsel. Three years later, he became Solicitor-general ; and in 1612, Attorney-general. During this time he was also distinguishing himself in parliament, and by writing books, which have been handed down to the admiration of posterity.

He was invested with the office of Lord Keeper of the Great Seal (1617), and created Viscount St Albans (1620). The height of his ambition as courtier and statesman was thus attained. Unhappily, he could not resist the temptation of enriching himself in his high office, by taking large sums of money, as bribes, from those who sought his favour. For these corrupt practices

he was at length arraigned before parliament (1621), when he pleaded guilty to most of the charges brought against him, and was sentenced—first, to pay a fine of forty thousand pounds; second, to be imprisoned in the Tower during the king's pleasure. No part of this sentence was fully carried out, doubtless owing to his great worth, and the service he had so long and so ably rendered to the state. The fine was remitted, and on his release from the Tower (two days after committal), he retired to his country seat at Gorhambury, where, for some time, he lived in great state. He died in greatly reduced circumstances at Highgate, on Easter Day, 1626.

Principal works: *The Proficiency and Advancement of Learning* (1605), *Novum Organum* (1620.)

THOMAS WENTWORTH, EARL OF STRAFFORD.

BORN 1593—DIED 1641.

Thomas Wentworth was the descendant of an old Yorkshire family, proud alike of their wealth and long descent.

During the reign of James I. he sat in two parliaments, and was one of the most distinguished leaders of the opposition, until the close of 1628, when he accepted the overtures of the court, and was created Baron Wentworth. From that time he became the king's most trusted adviser, and the bitter opponent of the party to which he had lately belonged. 'He now employed all his powers for the purpose of crushing those liberties of which he had been the most distinguished champion.' His plan of government (known as 'thorough') was to render Charles an absolute monarch, by undermining the power of the Commons, and securing a standing army for the king. He ruled Ireland as Lord Deputy from 1633 to 1640, according to this plan, and made his name universally detested.

In 1640, he was recalled to England to take the field against the Scots, and to receive the higher title of Earl of Strafford. In November of the same year, he was impeached by Pym, leader of the opposition, as having been guilty of many arbitrary acts while Lord Deputy of Ireland, and the adviser of the most violent measures of the English court. An act of attainder was passed against him, to which the king very reluctantly gave his consent, and Strafford was beheaded on Tower Hill, May 12, 1641.

OLIVER CROMWELL.

BORN 1599—DIED 1658.

Oliver Cromwell, Protector of the Commonwealth of England from 1653 to 1658, was born at Huntingdon, April 25, 1599. Becoming possessed of considerable property near Ely, he removed thither after his marriage, and owing to the interest he took in draining and cultivating the district, was known as 'Lord of the Fens.' He was returned as member for Cambridge to both the parliaments of 1640, despite the opposition of the court candidate. Though his presence was not courtly, nor his speech ready, yet 'his great earnestness soon obtained for him a marked position in the House.'

On the outbreak of the civil war in 1642, he joined the ranks of the Parliamentarians, and distinguished himself by his skill and bravery, and especially by his sagacity in selecting and training his soldiers, the results of which were seen in the organisation of the splendid 'Ironsides' army with which his after-victories were won. It was chiefly through the skill and courage of Cromwell the royalists were completely overthrown at *Marston Moor*, July 2, 1644.

When dissensions arose among the Parliamentarians,

Cromwell completely identified himself with the Independents, and by his boldness and reputation, became the head of this powerful body.

Before the commencement of the campaign of 1645, the army was remodelled, and Fairfax, over whom Cromwell had gained complete ascendancy, was made commander. So powerful did the army become under this generalship, that, though the Houses of Parliament continued to sit, the civil power was virtually vested in the army.

Thus we find that, when the royalist cause became desperate, King Charles was given up to the army; and finally, though tried for his life before parliament, it was mainly through the instrumentality of the army that he was brought to his trial and condemned.

On the death of the king, the most popular military men became the leaders of the state; Cromwell being appointed Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, where he found sufficient employment for his soldiers in quelling the royalist insurrection in that country, 1649.

In 1650, he was made commander-in-chief of the army to carry on the war in Scotland, where Charles, Prince of Wales, had been proclaimed king. On the 3d of September he totally defeated General Leslie at *Dunbar*, and the southern part of the kingdom fell into his hands. On his return to England, he gained a victory over the royalists at *Worcester*, September 3, 1651. From this time his power became supreme, and on December 16, 1653, he was formally acknowledged head of the realm, under the title of Lord Protector.

Although he refused the crown, his power and authority were such, that, while ruling with almost absolute sway the people and parliament, his friendship was sought, and his resentment dreaded everywhere abroad.

After a successful though rigorous rule of five years

—during which he surmounted all the difficulties of his perilous position—and while apparently at the zenith of his power, he was attacked by sickness, which ended fatally in the fifty-ninth year of his age, September 3, 1658, the anniversary of his two greatest victories, Dunbar and Worcester.

JOHN CHURCHILL, DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

BORN 1650—DIED 1722.

John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, second son of Sir Winston Churchill, was born at Ashe, in Devonshire. While still young, he was taken to court, and made page of honour to the Duke of York. Here he first became inspired with that military ardour which afterwards so distinguished him; and his royal patron, pleased with this growing desire, honoured him with an ensign's commission in the Guards at the early age of sixteen.

In 1672, Churchill served as captain under the Duke of Monmouth, in the troops sent by Charles to assist Louis XIV. against the Dutch. In this campaign the young soldier had the advantage of serving under two of the greatest generals of the age—the Prince of Condé and Marshal de Turenne. To the experience he gained under these leaders, as well as to his own abilities and bravery, may be attributed the brilliant successes of his later life. After peace was concluded, Churchill resumed his attendance on the Duke of York, who, in 1681, made him a colonel of dragoons, and recommended him to the favour of Charles.

When the Duke of York as James II. ascended the throne on the death of his brother in 1685, Churchill

was made Baron Churchill of Sundridge, and raised to the rank of general. He continued high in favour, and materially assisted in quelling the rebellion of Monmouth, which ended with the battle of Sedgemoor.

After the Revolution of 1688, Churchill was made Earl of Marlborough by William III. and served under him in Ireland and the Netherlands. But it was in the succeeding reign of Anne that his glory reached its height. His wife had long been the friend and adviser of the queen; and chiefly through her influence, Marlborough was appointed to the supreme command of the English, Dutch, and other allied forces in the Netherlands, to conduct the War of the Spanish Succession. For his glorious successes during the progress of the war, he was rewarded by a dukedom, a grant of crown lands at Woodstock (on which was afterwards built the splendid palace of Blenheim), and the thanks of both Houses of Parliament.

While he was thus gaining glory abroad, his enemies were busy at home. The Duchess of Marlborough's influence with the queen was rapidly declining, and the Whig party, to which Marlborough belonged—weakened by the intrigues of the Tories, and the prosecution of Dr Sacheverell—was hastening to its fall. In 1710, parliament was dissolved, and the Whig cabinet broken up. Under the new administration, Marlborough fought his last campaign.

In the year 1711 he was dismissed from his military office, and threatened with impeachment for enriching himself by a fraud on his soldiers. It was true that he had amassed money in his profession, and his well-known avarice gave colour to the charge. Mortified by this treatment, he retired to the continent till 1714, when he returned to England, and died at an advanced age in the reign of George I. (1722).

ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER,
1714.

George I. Elector of Hanover, and great-grandson of James I. peaceably ascended the English throne, on the death of Anne, by virtue of the Act of Settlement. The new monarch had arrived at the age of fifty-four, and had spent the whole of his previous life in Germany. He laboured under great personal disadvantages. His knowledge of the English language was limited to the utterance of a few broken sentences ; he did not understand the English character ; nor was he well acquainted with the political state of the country he was called upon to govern. He moreover took no pains to conceal his preference for his native country ; and this, though a natural failing, was a grave political error in his position as king of England, with a disputed succession imminent. The anxiety shewn by the king for the safety of Hanover, drew England more closely still into the net of continental politics, and involved her in wars in which she had no direct interest.

George was indebted to the adroit management of the leading Whigs, Lords Shrewsbury, Marlborough, Argyle, and Somerset, for his unopposed succession to the English throne, and he accordingly shewed a marked preference for that party.

A Whig ministry, at the head of which was Lord Townshend, was formed at the commencement of his reign. The Tory party, the leaders of whom were Lords Ormond, Bolingbroke, Oxford, and Bishop Atterbury, favoured the cause of the old Pretender (James Stuart, son of James II.), the hereditary heir to the throne. The supporters of the Pretender were called Jacobites, from *Jacobus*, the Latin name for James. A secret committee

of the House of Commons was appointed to draw up articles of impeachment against Oxford, Bolingbroke, and Ormond, all of whom were strongly suspected of carrying on a secret correspondence with the Pretender. The latter two escaped to France, and gave a favourable account to the French court of the Jacobite cause in England. The prosecution of Oxford was eventually abandoned, through a difference between the two Houses of Parliament.

Though the Tory party was for the time crushed, the spirit of faction grew stronger, and public sympathy was strongly exhibited on behalf of the Tories, who had identified themselves with the cause of the fallen Stuarts. In London, Manchester, and other large towns, there were popular tumults in favour of the Pretender, and it was accordingly thought necessary to arm the magistrates with additional power; which was done by passing the Riot Act (1715).

Meanwhile, active measures were in progress in Scotland for a general rising in support of the Stuart cause.

REBELLION IN FAVOUR OF THE OLD PRETENDER.

DATE AND REIGN—1715–16, GEORGE I.

CAUSES.—1. *James Francis Edward, son of James II. claimed the crown of England.* IMMEDIATE CAUSES
—2. *Unpopularity of the new king.* 3. *Fall of the Tories.*

Just at the period when the course of events seemed most favourable for the restoration
DETAILS. of the Stuarts, Louis XIV. king of France, their most powerful patron and supporter, died (September 1, 1715). He was succeeded by his

great-grandson, Louis XV. a child of five years old. The French regent, Philip, Duke of Orleans, was no friend to the Stuart cause. Despite this discouraging aspect of affairs in France, a determined effort had been commenced in Scotland and England, to place the Pretender on the throne of his ancestors.

The Earl of Mar raised his standard at *Braemar*, September 6, 1715, and was soon at the head of ten thousand Highlanders, who rendered him master of all Scotland north of the Forth. Mar's force was further augmented by the influx of some English Jacobites ; but he was kept in check by an inferior force under the Duke of Argyle, who was posted at Stirling. The Duke of Ormond was to have headed a rebellion in England, but failed to accomplish his design, and no rising took place except in Northumberland. Here the Earl of Derwentwater and Mr Foster collected a small force, and were joined by some gentlemen from the Scottish Border. They made an ineffectual attempt on Newcastle, and afterwards marched through Cumberland into Lancashire. At *Preston*, they were surrounded by the royal troops, under Generals Wills and Carpenter. The whole of the rebel force, to the number of fourteen hundred men, surrendered themselves prisoners of war (November 13, 1715).

On the same day as the surrender at Preston, a battle was fought at *Sheriffmuir*, near Dunblane, between the forces of Mar and Argyle. Both sides claimed the victory, but all the advantage was on the side of Argyle. On the 22d December, the Pretender landed at Peterhead, without forces, arms, or money. He was joined by Mar, and on the 6th of January 1716, made his public entry into Dundee. The Duke of Argyle was soon in a condition to advance against the insurgents, and the advisers of the Pretender resolved on a retreat. Despairing

of success, the Pretender and Mar embarked for France (February 4, 1716). 'The last embers of the rebellion were quickly extinguished, and there remained only the task of punishing the offenders.' Of the captured lords who took part in the rebellion, Derwentwater and Kenmure were executed (24th February); Nithsdale and Winton escaped from the Tower, the former through the heroic devotion of his wife. About twenty people of inferior rank were executed, and forty Scottish families of the first rank lost their estates.

Although the rebellion was completely crushed, the Jacobites continued troublesome to the end of the reign.

RESULTS.—1. *Increase of the power of the Whig party, and the stability of the House of Hanover.* 2. *Substitution of septennial for triennial parliaments.* According to the existing law, a new parliament should have been called the following year (1717); 'but, with a rebellion scarcely quelled, an invasion still threatened, and political parties in the highest degree exasperated,' it was thought advisable to extend the duration of parliament to seven years. (*Septennial Act passed, April 26, 1716.*)

THE SOUTH SEA SCHEME.

DATE AND REIGN—1720, GEORGE I.

CAUSES.—1. *Prevalent popular feeling in favour of speculation.* 2. *A desire on the part of the government to remove or lessen the national debt.*

The national debt commenced in the reign of William III. and was augmented through the expensive wars carried on by that monarch and Anne against the power of Louis XIV. of France. In the year 1720, it amounted to more than fifty millions sterling.

A company of merchants, at the head of which was Sir John Blunt, united together in 1720, and assumed the name of the South Sea Company. They proposed to become responsible for all the debts due from the government to its creditors—that is, the national debt—and recoup themselves by obtaining from the government the monopoly of the trade of the South Sea Islands, and the countries along the shores of the Pacific.

A bill, known as the South Sea Bill, and embodying these terms, passed the legislature, April 7, 1720. The advantage to the members of the South Sea Company of being thus connected with the government, was at once decided and apparent. The shares of the company were in eager demand, and soon reached a great price; some of them being sold at ten times their original cost.

Encouraged by the success of the South Sea Company, and the general mania for speculating, numerous other companies sprung into existence. Among these new companies, one was to make salt water fresh; another to extract silver from lead; another to make oil from sun-flowers.

By proceeding against some of these bubble companies, the South Sea Company itself gave rise to the first alarm. A panic suddenly set in; speculators were anxious to turn their bonds into money, but they became speedily conscious that they had parted with their gold for valueless scraps of paper, representing nothing 'but their own blind passion for gain.'

RESULT.—Thousands of persons were reduced to beggary, and the nation was brought to the verge of anarchy. Public credit was restored at length by the energetic measures of Sir Robert Walpole, who, for twenty years subsequently, guided the destinies of the nation.

FOREIGN POLICY OF ENGLAND IN THE
REIGN OF GEORGE I.

Owing to the king's connection with Hanover, England became involved in disputes on the continent. George I. had bought from the king of Denmark the duchies of Bremen and Verden, which he had added to his electorate. These duchies, Charles XII. king of Sweden—'the Swedish iron hero'—claimed as his own. War appeared certain, but the death of Charles, before the petty fortress of Fredericshall, averted all fears of a rupture between Sweden and England.

On 4th January 1717, the *Triple Alliance* was signed between France, England, and Holland; and in August 1718 the *Quadruple Alliance* between the same powers and the emperor. Both alliances were aimed against the aggressive policy of Spain, under Cardinal Alberoni, who was desirous of regaining for Spain the Italian dominions she had lost by the treaty of Utrecht. To frustrate his designs, Sir George Byng sailed with an English squadron into the Mediterranean, and nearly destroyed the entire Spanish fleet off Cape Passaro, August 11, 1718.

Alberoni now invited the Pretender to Madrid, and projected a second rebellion on his behalf, but a storm in the Bay of Biscay shattered the fleet, and only two small frigates reached Scotland (Kintail, in Ross-shire). Few of the Highlanders joined the invaders, and being attacked by a royalist party, they surrendered at discretion, 1719. Eventually, Alberoni made overtures for peace, but the allies insisted that no peace could be lasting unless he were removed from office. Alberoni was accordingly dismissed by Philip V. king of Spain, and peace restored, 1720.

WAR WITH SPAIN.

DATE AND REIGN—1739-48, GEORGE II.

CAUSE.—*Claim advanced by Spain of a right to search all British vessels suspected of smuggling on the coast of Spanish America.*

Efforts had been made for some time by Spain to prevent an illicit traffic, carried on by some

DETAILS. British merchants in her American colonies.

In searching vessels for this purpose, the Spanish *guarda-costas* (guard-ships) had committed some excesses; and, led on by the Tories, the English people clamoured for war against their former naval rival. Sir Robert Walpole, the Whig premier, laboured strenuously in the interests of peace; but the king, the opposition, and the country were impatient for vigorous measures, and war was declared against Spain, October 19, 1739. The same year Admiral Vernon, with an English fleet of six ships, captured Portobello, on the isthmus of Darien, and the joy of the nation was intense.

The second operation of Vernon resulted in failure. An attempt was made to capture Carthagena, the most strongly fortified place in South America. In making the attack, General Wentworth, the commander of the English land forces, failed to come to a proper understanding with the admiral, and this doubtless contributed to the failure of the undertaking. The enterprise was abandoned, and the fleet, consisting of one hundred and twenty ships (the most powerful ever sent to those seas), returned to Jamaica, 1741.

A third fleet, under Commodore Anson, was despatched to the western coast of Spanish America, to co-operate with Vernon; but while doubling Cape Horn, violent hurricanes arose, and Anson's ship, the *Centurion*, was

separated from the rest. No union was effected with Vernon ; but Anson captured several prizes, and amongst them the Manilla transport, with treasure to the amount of £313,000. He returned to England after an absence of nearly four years, having in that time circumnavigated the globe.

In 1742, no event of importance occurred in connection with the war, and after that date the Spanish War merged and was lost in the 'Seven Years' War.'

RESULT.—*A fruitless waste of blood and treasure. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748, not a single point was gained for which England had been fighting with Spain for nine years.*

THE WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION.

DATE AND REIGN—1741–48, GEORGE II.

CAUSES.—1. *Death of Charles VI. emperor of Germany, October 20, 1740.* 2. IMMEDIATE CAUSE—*Seizure of Silesia by Frederick the Great.*

By the '*Pragmatic Sanction*,' which the great powers of Europe bound themselves to maintain,
 DETAILS. Maria Theresa, daughter of the emperor, succeeded him as queen of Hungary and Bohemia. Soon after the death of the emperor, Frederick the Great of Prussia seized Silesia. This was a signal for the other great states to repudiate their engagements. The claim of Maria Theresa was disputed by the elector of Bavaria, who was raised by the suffrages of his colleagues to the imperial throne, under the title of Charles VII.

Nearly all Europe entered into the quarrel, and with the exception of England, all the great powers who had become parties to the Pragmatic Sanction sided against the empress queen. The adhesion given by England to

the *Pragmatic Sanction* was not her only reason for entering into the war. George II. feared that the safety of his Hanoverian dominions was in danger, and his English subjects were animated by their old spirit of hostility against the French, who, having taken the part of the elector of Bavaria, had reduced Maria Theresa to the greatest distress.

An English army of 16,000 men, afterwards reinforced by Hessian and Hanoverian troops, was sent to assist the Austrians, under Lord Stair, 1742. They failed, however, to co-operate with their Dutch allies, and remained inactive during the whole of the year. The king of England joined the allied forces, and defeated the French at *Dettingen*, near the Maine, June 27, 1743. No English king has since headed his troops in battle.

In the campaign of 1745, the English and their allies were defeated in an attempt to relieve Tournay. Marshal Saxe, the French commander, had, with a large army, invested that city. The Duke of Cumberland, son of George II. in an attack on the investing army, was defeated at *Fontenoy*, May 11, 1745, and compelled to retreat.

Eventually, the husband of Maria Theresa, Francis Stephen, grand-duke of Tuscany, was chosen emperor, 1745, the throne being held by the queen till her death, November 29, 1780.

RESULT.—*Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, October 7, 1748. The contracting parties were England, Holland, France, Spain, and Austria. It was agreed that the respective conquests should be restored, and that each party should go back to the same condition as before the war. Prussia, which was not a party to the treaty, gained Silesia. 'Nothing could tear that province from the iron grasp of Frederick the Great.'*

REBELLION IN FAVOUR OF THE YOUNG PRETENDER.

DATE AND REIGN—1745–46, GEORGE II.

CAUSES.—1. *Prince Charles Edward Stuart (elder son of the Old Pretender), commonly called the Young Pretender, claimed the crown of England.* IMMEDIATE CAUSES—2. *Misfortunes of the British Arms on the Continent.* 3. *Dissensions among the political parties in England.*

At the period of the projected rebellion, the king of England was in Hanover; the Duke of Cumberland, his son, with the bulk of the English army in Flanders; and parliament was distracted by violent political disputes. The Young Pretender was now twenty-five years old. ‘His manners were courteous, his temper apparently good, his courage of a nature fit for the most desperate undertakings, and his strength of constitution admirable.’ But in politics and religion he inherited all that had contributed to the unpopularity of his ancestors; his education had, in fact, been strangely neglected in certain points of the last consequence to success.

Anticipations on the part of the Prince of important assistance from France were doomed to disappointment. In 1744, he had been supplied by that country with a considerable fleet to invade England; but owing to the ‘alertness of the British navy,’ under Sir John Norris, and a storm, which, as usual, ‘took part in the strife’ against the Stuarts, the expedition proved futile.

Flushed by the victory over England and her allies at Fontenoy, France deemed it no longer necessary to create a diversion in favour of her army in the

Netherlands. On the other hand, the disasters of the English army revived the hopes of Prince Charles; and he resolved to make a descent on the British dominions, relying on the loyalty and affection of his friends, particularly in the Highlands of Scotland. Almost every adherent with whom he corresponded in England, nevertheless, advised him to relinquish the proposed invasion, unless aided by foreign troops.

Prince Charles landed at *Moidart*, Inverness-shire, July 25, 1745. He was attended by only *seven persons*, the chief of whom were the Marquis of Tullibardine; Sir Thomas Sheridan, his tutor; and Sir John Macdonald. At first, the Highlanders hesitated about joining the Prince, but having won over the celebrated chieftain, Cameron of Lochiel, he was soon after joined by several Highland chiefs. The rebel standard was raised at *Glenfinnan*, a valley near Loch Shiel, on the 19th of August, and on the following day the Prince commenced his southward march at the head of 1500 men.

Sir John Cope, the commander of the royal forces in Scotland, was despatched, on news of the rebellion, to the north, to repel the advance of the rebels. As they held possession of a strong mountain pass, Cope declined an attack, and marched northward to Inverness, leaving the Lowlands open to the invaders. Crossing the Grampians, the Prince entered the Lowlands unopposed, gaining fresh strength as he advanced. Perth and Edinburgh surrendered, without opposition, and at both these places the Prince's father was proclaimed king. Meanwhile, Cope had transported his troops into the Lowlands by sea, and on the 17th September landed at Dunbar, advancing on Edinburgh from the east.

The rival armies met at *Prestonpans*, and although the royal troops were equal in number, and superior in artillery to those of the rebels, the battle was won by

the impetuous valour of the latter in less than ten minutes, September 21. By this victory Charles became master of Scotland, with the exception of a few fortresses; and after an unfortunate delay of six weeks at Edinburgh, he commenced his memorable march into England, by the western Border, November 1.

But, contrary to expectations, few persons joined him. It was clear the 'surrender of Preston' was not yet forgotten. Carlisle surrendered after a siege of three days. Passing through Kendal, Lancaster, and Preston, the invading army entered Manchester, November 29, where it was reinforced by 200 men under Colonel Townley, the only addition gained while in England. On the 4th of December, the invaders reached Derby, but none of the Jacobites of the south joined them, nor was any aid forthcoming from France.

Three armies now threatened the troops of Charles, who very reluctantly gave the signal for the 'northward retreat,' which was conducted with consummate tact by Lord George Murray. Glasgow was reached on the 26th of December, and advancing to invest Stirling, Prince Charles was strengthened by reinforcements from Perth. General Hawley, who was sent to relieve Stirling, was disgracefully defeated at Falkirk, January 17, 1746; but the Prince not reaping any advantage from this victory, retreated to the neighbourhood of Inverness, where he spent the rest of the winter.

The Duke of Cumberland had meanwhile taken the command of the royal army; and at *Culloden Moor*, April 16, 1746, the hopes of Charles were finally shattered. Cumberland had all the advantages that superior numbers and discipline could give him, but his victory, though complete, 'was sullied by the disgraceful cruelties inflicted on the inhabitants of the district.'

After a series of remarkable adventures, the Young

Pretender managed to effect his escape to the continent. About eighty persons implicated in the rebellion suffered death, including the Lords Kilmarnock, Balmerino, and Lovat.

RESULT.—*Last attempt made by the Stuarts to regain their hereditary dominions, and undisputed possession of the English throne by the Hanoverian dynasty.*

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

DATE AND REIGN—1756–63, GEORGE II.—III.

1. EUROPEAN WAR.

CAUSES.—1. *Ambitious policy of Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, who had recently added Silesia to his dominions.* 2. *Anxiety of George II. respecting the safety of Hanover.*

Great Britain became the ally of Prussia, not from regard to her own interests, but that the king might be able to protect his Hanoverian dominions. Austria had been deprived of Silesia by Prussia; and France, Russia, and Poland united with Austria to check the new and rising power of Prussia under her great king.

The war opened ingloriously. Minorca was lost, 1756, through the alleged neglect of Admiral Byng; and to satisfy public indignation, Byng was brought before a court-martial, and sentenced to be shot at Portsmouth, March 14, 1757. The Duke of Cumberland, who had charge of Hanover, allowed himself to be hemmed in by the French, and was forced to sign a convention at Closter-seven, by which his army was disbanded, September 8, 1757.

On sea, the English were more fortunate. In 1759,

Admiral Boscawen defeated the Toulon fleet; and the same year the Brest fleet was totally destroyed by Admiral Hawke. The French navy was thus rendered inoperative during the rest of the war.

The French suffered their first disaster on land at the battle of Minden, in which the English infantry, under Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, played a conspicuous part, July 31, 1759.

In 1762, Spain joined the war in alliance with France against England. Both monarchs belonged to the Bourbon family; hence this alliance is known as the '*Family Compact*.' Pitt had previously been aware of a secret understanding between these powers against England, and urged immediate war against Spain. As his advice was disregarded, he resigned office, and was succeeded by Lord Bute as prime-minister.

Spain having subsequently declared war against England, Havana and Manilla were taken by the English, and France was stripped of her finest West Indian islands.

The contending parties were now eager for peace, and the Treaty of Fontainebleau was concluded, February 10, 1763. By this treaty, England retained most of the conquests she had acquired during the war.

2. INDIAN WAR.

CAUSE.—*Mutual jealousy of English and French settlers, who were each desirous of obtaining supreme influence in the peninsula.*

The principal settlements in India belonged to England, but the French, Dutch, and Portuguese held
 DETAILS. also more or less important possessions. Both the English and French were anxious to acquire ascendancy in India, and for some time

there had been petty warfare carried on between them.

Dupleix, the governor of Pondicherry (the central station of the French), 'a man of restless, capacious, and inventive mind, first saw that it was possible to found a European empire on the ruins of the Mogul monarchy;' and to accomplish his great design, he strengthened himself by alliances with the native princes. For a time, everything seemed to favour his purpose. Madras had been recently acquired by the French, and they soon afterwards became masters of almost the whole of the Carnatic. The ability and good-fortune of Dupleix were apparent everywhere: 'He was declared governor of India from the river Kristna to Cape Comorin, a country about as large as France; and ruled about thirty millions of people with almost absolute power.' But the success of the French was suddenly checked, and afterwards annihilated, by the exertions of Robert, afterwards Lord Clive. He went out to India as a clerk in the service of the East India Company, and afterwards joined the army as an ensign, 1746. His first military exploit was the capture of Arcot, 1752. By the seizure of Fort St David, near Madras, he obtained the complete command of the Carnatic.

In 1756, a young Indian despot named Suraja Dowlah, doubtless encouraged by the native alliance with France, shut up for a whole night 146 British prisoners in the Black Hole of Calcutta: 'a dungeon which in such a climate was too close and confined for one European.' Only twenty-three persons came out alive. To avenge this outrage, Clive, now governor of Madras, marched to Calcutta, which he took January 1, 1757. Against terrible odds, he gained a great victory over the combined French and native forces under Suraja Dowlah, at the battle of *Plassey*, June 23, 1757. This victory placed

Bengal in the hands of the English, and 'laid the foundation of the great territorial power which the British have since gained in Hindustan.'

3. WAR IN NORTH AMERICA.

CAUSE.—*Encroachments made by the French, aided by native allies, on the boundary-lines of British colonies.*

The English colonies in North America (now the United States) were, on the western side, greatly exposed to the French, who held Louisiana and Canada, and were endeavouring to connect them by a chain of forts stretching in the rear of the English settlements.

The French colonists induced many of the native tribes to join them in attacks on the English provinces; and from their intimate knowledge of the country, then covered with woods and morasses, they proved most dangerous enemies to the English. Several attacks were made by the English against the French forts, but without success. General Braddock, with whom the famous George Washington served as aide-de-camp, was surprised, defeated, and slain in the woods of Ohio by a united force of French and Indians.

Soon after the accession of the celebrated William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, to office, success dawned on the arms of Britain, and one after another of the principal forts was taken. But the great object of Pitt was to deprive the French of Canada, and afterwards to form the British colonies in North America 'into one vast range of dominion.' For this purpose, an efficient force was sent out under Lieutenant-general Wolfe, a young officer of distinguished courage and ability. The first operation against Quebec was unsuccessful, and this failure led to the bold idea of scaling

the precipitous heights behind the city, called the Heights of Abraham, which the enemy deemed impregnable. Montcalm, the French commander, was surprised by a night attack, and Quebec surrendered, September 18, 1759. Both Montcalm and Wolfe fell in the action, the latter at the moment of victory. Twelve months later, Montreal, with the whole of Canada, was transferred to British dominion, as it has ever since remained.

RESULTS.—1. *Extension of colonial possessions of England. She had, during the Seven Years' War, acquired Canada, and laid the foundation of her empire in India.* 2. *The energy and foresight of Pitt, and the brilliant successes of the English navy, raised England to a summit of power before unknown.*

PROSECUTION OF JOHN WILKES.

DATE AND REIGN—1763-69, GEORGE III.

CAUSE.—*Publication of a political libel in a paper called the North Briton.*

Lord Bute, a Scotch nobleman, and a favourite of George III. succeeded William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, as premier (1762). Bute's unpopularity soon became extreme, as it was generally thought that owing to his anxiety to close the Seven Years' War, the terms of peace of the treaty of Paris were not so advantageous to England as they might otherwise have been. The current of popular feeling continued to run so strongly against him, and the press, particularly the *North Briton*, of which John Wilkes, M.P. for Aylesbury, was editor, assailed him with such violent abuse, that he resigned office, 1763.

He was succeeded by George Grenville, who

commenced office by prosecuting Wilkes for a libel contained in No. 45 of the *North Briton*, in which he directly accused his majesty of falsehood. A '*general warrant*' was issued by the Secretary of State against the authors, printers, and publishers of the paper. In virtue of this warrant, Wilkes was arrested and sent to the Tower. The judges declared that no member of parliament could be imprisoned except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace. A special jury returned a verdict of one thousand pounds damages against the government for illegal seizure of Wilkes' papers; and Chief-justice Pratt ruled that general warrants were illegal. Wilkes was nevertheless found guilty of libel, expelled the House of Commons, and outlawed. He returned from the continent in 1768, and was elected member for Middlesex, but was again expelled. His second return for the same county was declared void; and on a third election, the court candidate, Colonel Luttrell, who polled 296 votes against Wilkes' 1143, was declared by parliament duly elected. The mob regarded Wilkes as a martyr to the cause of liberty. His popularity in London was unbounded, and he was ultimately allowed to take his seat for Middlesex, and afterwards became Lord Mayor of London.

RESULTS.—1. *The declaration of Chief-justice Pratt concerning the illegality of general warrants, was hailed as a triumph of the cause of public liberty.* 2. *For a time 'the constitutional rights of the entire electoral body throughout the kingdom were virtually annulled.'*

AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

DATE AND REIGN—1775-83, GEORGE III.

CAUSE.—*Taxes levied on Americans who were not represented in the British parliament.*

1. IMPOSITION OF TAXES.

In 1765, the Grenville ministry, being desirous of easing the burden of taxation in England, caused by the late war, came to the resolution of taxing the American colonies; and a tax on certain papers and parchments used in America, known as the *Stamp Act*, was passed. The tax met with a storm of opposition in America, and the colonists combined almost universally to resist the introduction of the stamped paper. The obnoxious tax was repealed, but the repeal was accompanied by the fatal declaration, that Great Britain *had a right to tax her colonies* (1766).

The same year, the Duke of Grafton became premier, but Pitt, Earl of Chatham, was the actual leader of the cabinet. In 1767, during the illness of Pitt, Charles Townshend, a brilliant member of the administration, carried a bill imposing duties in the British colonies on glass, paper, painters' colours, and tea. The Americans met this new burden with the same opposition as formerly; and on the accession of Lord North to office, 1770, all the duties imposed in America, except that on tea, were repealed. This was avowedly retained to assert the right of taxation. Three ships laden with tea entered the port of Boston, December 16, 1773, and were boarded by a number of colonists, disguised as Mohawk Indians, who flung the tea into the sea. The British parliament, in consequence, shut up the port of Boston, and British soldiers occupied that city.

All the States, except Georgia, meeting in congress at Philadelphia, 1774, sent an address to the king, praying that oppressive taxes might be removed. But the government had now resolved to attempt the reduction of the colonists by force of arms, and every proposal from America was treated 'with a proud silence.'

2. THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

First Campaign, 1775.—Skirmish between the English and Americans at Lexington, 19th April; English repulsed. The colonies now took the title of the United Colonies, and assumed the functions of sovereignty. George Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of the American forces. Battle of *Bunker's Hill*, 17th June: English victorious, but suffered heavy loss; the real advantage lay with the colonists. Invasion of Canada by Americans: unsuccessful, though Montreal was captured.

Second Campaign, 1776.—Boston evacuated by the British. *Declaration of American Independence*, 4th July. Battle of Long Island, 27th August: English successful. New York taken by British, under General Howe.

Third Campaign, 1777.—Americans received aid from France, which caused a war between that country and England. Battle of *Brandywine*, 11th September: English successful, and Philadelphia captured. Convention of Saratoga: General Burgoyne, marching from Canada, hemmed in by American troops at *Saratoga*; compelled to surrender, with his army of 5700 men, 17th October. First serious check to the success of the English.

Fourth Campaign, 1778.—General Howe succeeded in command by General Clinton, who was compelled to evacuate Philadelphia. France formally recognised the

United States as an independent power. (Capture of Pondicherry, French possession, by the English.) French reinforcements, under the Marquis de la Fayette, joined Washington's army.

Fifth Campaign, 1779.—Spain recognised the independence of the United States, and joined in the war against England. (Gibraltar, which had formerly belonged to Spain, blockaded unsuccessfully from 1779 to 1782.) War in America chiefly conducted in southern states, but no event of importance occurred.

Sixth Campaign, 1780.—(Admiral Rodney defeated Spanish fleet off *Cape St Vincent*, 16th January.) Charleston taken by the English under General Clinton, 12th May. Capture of South Carolina by English. Major André of the English army executed as a spy. Holland recognised the independence of the States. War with Holland.

Seventh Campaign, 1781.—Lord Cornwallis, by the skilful movements of Washington, shut up in Yorktown, and compelled to surrender with his army of 7000 men. This surrender virtually closed the war, 19th October.

Eighth Campaign, 1782.—Admiral Rodney gained a splendid victory over the French fleet in the West Indies (12th April). Independence of United States recognised by Great Britain (November).

RESULT.—*Independence of United States of America secured, and formally acknowledged by Great Britain at the Treaty of Versailles, September 3, 1783. England, France, Spain, and the United States, were the contracting parties.*

THE GORDON RIOTS.

DATE AND REIGN—1780, GEORGE III.

CAUSE.—*Passing of an act of parliament (1778) which relieved Roman Catholics from some of the penal statutes formerly enacted against them.*

Both in England and Scotland this ‘measure of relief’ gave great offence to some extreme Protestants, and numerous associations were formed in England and Scotland for the ‘defence’ of the Protestant religion, and the repeal of the act.

Lord George Gordon, a nobleman of weak intellect, and a member of the House of Commons, became the leader of the disaffected Protestants in London. On the 2d June 1780, an immense mob accompanied him to the House of Commons, where he was to present a petition against the act signed by 120,000 persons. Only eight members supported a motion for the repeal of the act, after which Lord George came out of the lobby of the House and addressed the mob in a violent speech. Incited by his injudicious remarks, his followers commenced to demolish several Roman Catholic chapels, and, as they met with no effectual resistance from the authorities, proceeded to further acts of violence. Newgate was attacked, the prisoners released, and the prison set on fire. For five days the mob held undisputed possession of the streets, and gave full scope to their destructive propensities.

The king in council at length determined to authorise the military to put down the riot by force of arms. This was done, but not until many persons were killed and wounded. Several of the ringleaders were taken prisoners,

tried, and executed. The trial of Gordon was delayed till the following year, when, through the exertions of his eminent counsel, Erskine, he managed to obtain an acquittal.

RESULT.—‘*The chief sufferers from these riots were the party who aimed at political reforms. On the other hand, the king obtained increased respect, in consequence of the firmness he had shewn in taking measures for the suppression of the riots.*’

WAR WITH FRANCE.

PART I.—TO THE PEACE OF AMIENS (1802).

DATE AND REIGN—1793–1802, GEORGE III.

CAUSE.—*Revolution in France, 1789–95.*

French Revolution.—The revolution in France was excited by several causes, among others, the successful issue of the American War of Independence, in which the French had taken an active part; the oppression of the lower classes by the nobility; the extravagance of the French court; and the infidel writings of Voltaire and Rousseau. During its progress, the Bourbon monarchy was overthrown (Louis XVI. and his wife, Marie Antoinette, were guillotined, 1793), and a Republic established; Christianity trampled under foot, and Reason worshipped; while thousands of innocent lives were sacrificed. The war commenced by the revolution in France continued with but slight intervals to distract Europe for twenty-two years.

The National Convention, as the French executive was now termed, offered fraternity and succour to any nation wishing to recover its liberty. This policy was naturally

calculated to destroy the maintenance of all established authority ; and in January 1793, the English government refused to acknowledge the French ambassador by the title of ambassador of the French Republic. On the 1st of February 1793, the Convention declared war against England.

Outbreak of War.—At the commencement of the struggle, England was joined by Holland, Spain, Austria, Prussia, and five smaller states. The measures adopted by Pitt, the English premier, ‘ who was singularly unsuccessful as a war minister, were lacking in vigour and efficiency.’ On the part of France, the war was conducted with great energy ; and under her great soldier, Napoleon Bonaparte, her armies were for many years able to successfully encounter the formidable European coalition opposed to them.

Events of War—

1793. Napoleon Bonaparte first distinguished himself at the retaking of Toulon, which had been taken by the British fleet for Louis XVII.

1794. The Duke of York with the English army compelled to evacuate Holland, owing to the superior forces of the French. Flanders and Holland conquered by the French. All the French West Indian islands taken from the Republic by an English fleet, under Admiral Jervis. Lord Howe gained a decisive victory over the French off *Brest*, 1st June.

1795. Dutch deserted English alliance, and joined Republic. Cape of Good Hope taken from Holland by English, and most of her possessions in the East Indies. Lord Malmesbury opened negotiations with the Republic for peace, but failed to come to an amicable arrangement.

1796. Spain declared war against England. Great successes of the French on the continent. Northern states of Italy overrun by French army under Napoleon,

and Austria submitted to a humiliating peace with France.

1797. Year of great depression in England. She was deserted by all her allies, and the national finances appeared unequal to sustain the expenses of a protracted war. Bank of England stopped cash payments, and did not resume them till 1821. Mutinies of the fleet at Spithead and the Nore. Two naval victories: Sir John Jervis defeated the allied French and Spanish fleets off *Cape St Vincent*, 14th February; Dutch defeated by Admiral Duncan off *Camperdown*, 11th October.

1798. Malta taken by Napoleon, 12th June; he also invaded Egypt, to open a way for conquest in British India. *Battle of Nile*, 1st August; Nelson almost destroyed French fleet, and prevented return of French army to France.

1799. Napoleon repulsed at Acre by Sir Sydney Smith; returned to France, and was declared First Consul.

1800. Malta taken from French, 5th September. Maritime confederacy formed against England by Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark.

1801. Battle of *Alexandria*, 21st March. Sir Ralph Abercromby defeated French, who evacuated Egypt. *Bombardment of Copenhagen* by Sir Hyde Parker and Nelson, 2d April, and the battle of the Baltic; after which the Danes consented to an armistice. This victory and the assassination of the Emperor Paul of Russia, broke up the maritime confederacy.

1802. *Peace of Amiens*.—France retained most of her conquests. Napoleon elected First Consul for life.

WAR WITH FRANCE.

PART II.—TO THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO AND OVERTHROW OF NAPOLEON, 1815.

DATE AND REIGN—1803–15, GEORGE III.

CAUSE.—*Unbounded ambition of Napoleon Bonaparte.*

Renewal of War.—The Peace of Amiens was little more than an armed truce. France had now placed herself under the control of her chief military genius, Napoleon Bonaparte, and it was soon manifest that he was not anxious for the continuance of peace. By taking advantage of several loose points in the treaty, he provoked Great Britain to retaliate, and war accordingly recommenced, 1803. In 1804, Napoleon was made Emperor of the French, under the title of Napoleon I. By a series of brilliant and unparalleled successes, he became, in 1808, the master of nearly the whole of the continent of Europe. Had it not been for the naval successes of Great Britain, it is probable that the whole of Europe must have submitted to his power.

Naval Successes of England.—Napoleon had made great preparations for the invasion of England, and a column is still standing at Boulogne to commemorate an invasion that never took place. All hopes of a successful descent on England were effectually extinguished after the great *Battle of Trafalgar*, October 21, 1805, when Lord Nelson completely vanquished the French and Spanish fleets. The gallant Nelson fell in the moment of victory. His last signal just before the battle, ‘England expects every man to do his duty,’ will long be remembered by his countrymen.

As it was believed that Napoleon would occupy Denmark, and possess himself of the Danish navy, the British government sent an armament to Copenhagen, which bombarded the city, and brought the Danish fleet to England, September 1807.

Peninsular War (1808–1814).—Napoleon had begun to fill the thrones of Europe with his own kinsmen. He made his brother Joseph king of Spain, and filled the principal cities of Spain with French troops. Exasperated by the cruelties committed by the French soldiery at Madrid, and to recover their independence, the Spaniards sought aid from England, which was readily granted. War was declared by Spain, 1808, and the same year Sir Arthur Wellesley landed with a British army at Mondego Bay. The part taken by the English in this war gave the first serious check to the continuance of Napoleon's success.

First Campaign, 1808.—French defeated at *Roliça*, 17th August; and at *Vimiera*, 21st August. *Convention of Cintra*, by which the French agreed to evacuate Portugal. Sir Arthur Wellesley superseded in command by Sir John Moore. Moore advanced into Spain, but was compelled to retreat.

Second Campaign, 1809.—Sir John Moore pursued by Marshal Soult, who came up with the English at *Corunna*, 16th January, but was repulsed. Moore slain in the middle of the action, and hastily buried on the ramparts of the town. Sir Arthur Wellesley resumed command, and compelled Soult to quit Oporto, and return to Spain. Sir Arthur formed a junction with Spanish army, and engaged the French, under Marshal Victor, at *Talavera*. French defeated with loss of 7000 men, 27th and 28th July. Sir Arthur Wellesley raised to the dignity of Baron Douro of Wellesley, and Viscount Wellington of Talavera.

Third Campaign, 1810.—Lord Wellington defeated the French at *Busaco*, 27th September; but his opponents being greatly superior in number, he deemed it prudent to enter the impregnable lines of Torres Vedras.

Fourth Campaign, 1811.—Three marshals of France successively beaten in the course of a few months—Victor, by General Graham, at *Barrosa*, 5th March; Massena, ‘the child of victory,’ by Wellington, at *Fuentes d’Onoro*, 5th May; and Soult, by Marshal Beresford, at *Albuera*, 16th May. The last was the most sanguinary and desperate battle that occurred during the war.

Fifth Campaign, 1812.—Campaign opened by the capture of *Ciudad Rodrigo*, 19th January, by Wellington. *Badajoz* was successfully stormed, 6th April. By these successes the path was made clear for the English army into Spain. The tide of fortune was clearly turned. *Battle of Salamanca*, 22d July; Marshal Marmont defeated by Wellington, with loss of 14,000 men. Wellington rewarded with a marquise.

Sixth Campaign, 1813.—French, under Joseph Bonaparte and Marshal Jourdan, defeated at *Vitoria*, 21st June; crowning victory of Peninsular War. Wellington made field-marshal. The French were vigorously pursued to the Pyrenees, which they bravely but unsuccessfully defended. Wellington was thus the first opponent of Napoleon to plant the standard of an invading army on French soil.

Seventh Campaign, 1814.—War brought to a successful termination. Soult defeated by Wellington at *Orthes*, 27th February. The French were driven across the Adour, and Wellington sent troops to occupy Bordeaux. *Battle of Toulouse*, 10th April; French, under Soult, defeated with great slaughter by Wellington. Meanwhile, Napoleon had abdicated. A convention was concluded, and the Peninsular War was over.

First Abdication of Napoleon.—The invasion of Russia by Napoleon, in 1812, resulted in the fatal retreat from Moscow, which deprived him of his vast army, and reduced him to the condition of a fugitive. He was now overmatched by the combined armies of England, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, and was thoroughly beaten by the Prussians at *Leipzig*, 16th to 19th October 1813. He fell back on the Rhine, and retreated within his own frontier. The allies pursued their advantage, and crossing the Rhine at various points, entered Paris, March 30, 1814, and recognised a provisional government in the name of Louis XVIII. In the course of a few days, the allies ratified a treaty (*first Treaty of Paris*) with Napoleon, by which he agreed to resign the government of France, and live for the future at Elba.

Second Abdication and Final Overthrow.—On the 26th of February 1815, Napoleon quitted Elba, and landed at Cannes, in Provence, 1st March. Twenty days after his landing on French soil, he again held the capital and throne of France. The allies at once declared war against him. The English and Prussians were first in the field—Wellington at the head of 80,000 men, and Blücher at the head of 110,000 men. Napoleon had in the short space of two months collected an army of 125,000 men, and crossed the frontier, 15th June, with the design of separating the English and Prussians, in order to attack them in detail. Blücher was defeated at *Ligny*, on the 16th June. Wellington was able to hold his ground at *Quatre-Bras* against the French, under Marshal Ney, ‘the bravest of the brave.’ The retreat of the Prussians, who were pursued by Marshal Grouchy, compelled Wellington to fall back on a position near Waterloo, where he decided to await the attack of the French. Wellington’s army amounted to about 69,000

men ; Napoleon's, to 72,000. On the 18th of June, the decisive *Battle of Waterloo*, which annihilated the ambitious hopes of Napoleon, was fought. The battle consisted of a constant succession of attacks by the French upon the British lines, 'sustained with great firmness, and repulsed with terrible loss.' Late in the action, the arrival of Blücher, who had outmarched Grouchy, changed the repulse into a signal defeat. Napoleon fled to Paris, but was unable to collect another army. He was again required by the allies to surrender the crown. St Helena was selected as the place of his future residence, where he remained till his death, May 5, 1821. Peace between France and the allied powers was definitely concluded by the *second Treaty of Paris*, 20th November.

RESULTS.—1. *Balance of power in Europe restored. By the success of the aggressive designs of Napoleon, the empire of France had extended far beyond its proper limits. The Treaty of Settlement, arranged by the Congress of Vienna, June 9, 1815, and the second Treaty of Paris, 20th November, decided the future limits of France, which were to be about the same as before the commencement of the war.* 2. *Great Britain emerged from the war the undisputed mistress of the ocean, with increased respect for her army, and an extended colonial empire.* 3. *Heavy addition to the financial burden of England.*

IRISH REBELLION.

DATE AND REIGN—1798, GEORGE III.

CAUSES.—1. *Severe penal laws enforced against Roman Catholics.* 2. *Success of the American rebellion and French Revolution.* 3. *Promise of aid from France.*

Since the Pacification of Limerick, the people of Ireland had been ruled almost exclusively by the Prot-

DETAILS. estant party. After the death of William III. who was much opposed to religious persecution, acts of parliament of great severity were passed to prevent the growth of Popery. The common people of the Catholic faith, finding themselves denied all access to justice, took the law into their own hands; and a system of treachery, distrust, and cruelty was brought into play. Insurgents, under the name of Whiteboys, arrayed themselves against the payment of tithes and rents; and 'Catholic Defenders' kept up a district warfare.

The success of the French Revolution inspired the Irish with new hope. Local jealousies were thrown aside, and in 1791 an association, called the United Irishmen, was formed, to obtain a complete reform of the government. The society was inaugurated at Belfast, 1791, but it did not become complete in its organisation till 1796, when the associated bodies became secret societies. It was determined to achieve a revolution by force of arms; the chief leaders being Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Arthur O'Connor, and Thomas Emmet, a barrister. Communications were opened with France, and promises of assistance were readily made by the 'French Directory,' 1796. The same year, the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended in Ireland, and in 1797, martial law was proclaimed; the life and liberty of the

Irish people being thus placed at the mercy of a dissolute soldiery. The 'French Directory' proposed sending over a considerable army, but this design was frustrated, as the French fleet was dispersed by a storm, and Admiral Duncan defeated the Dutch fleet intended to carry a French army to Ireland, at *Camperdown*, October 11, 1797.

Losing all hope of French assistance, the conspirators resolved to act without it; but one of their number turned informer, and revealed the whole project. Fitzgerald and other leaders were taken prisoners. The rebels, notwithstanding, resolved to effect a rising on a fixed day. Naas and Carlow were attacked, but at both places the rebels were repulsed with loss. Slight risings in Antrim and Down were also easily suppressed. At Wicklow and Wexford they mustered all their strength, and intrenched themselves in a fortified position at Vinegar Hill, near Enniscorthy. On the 21st June 1798, they were attacked by General Lake, and defeated with great slaughter. This decisive victory put an end to the rebellion. Some French troops landed in Mayo, in August, but in less than a month they were compelled to surrender at Carrick-on-Shannon.

RESULT.—*Union of Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland, January 1, 1801. The people of Ireland were represented in the Imperial Parliament by thirty-two Lords and one hundred Commons.*

WAR WITH UNITED STATES.

DATE AND REIGN—1812-14, GEORGE III.

CAUSES.—1. *Order in Council, by which England met the commercial policy of Napoleon.* 2. *Right assumed by British ships of war to search for English seamen on board American vessels.*

In the year 1806, Napoleon issued his celebrated 'Berlin Decree,' which forbade intercourse with Great Britain, or use of British manufactures. By way of retaliation, England issued an 'Order in Council,' pronouncing the whole coast of France in a state of blockade; and declaring all neutral vessels trading with France or her allies liable to capture. Between the 'Berlin Decree' and the 'Order in Council,' the trade of neutrals was nearly destroyed. But the principal ground of complaint on the part of the United States was the right of search claimed by British ships of war.

The 'Order in Council' was repealed in favour of America, but the Americans were resolved on war and the conquest of Canada. War was accordingly declared against Great Britain, June 18, 1812. The Canadians were invited to throw off the British yoke, but they remained faithful to the mother-country; and the measures adopted by the English general, Brock, were so effective, that in less than two months, General Hull, the United States' commander, was obliged to capitulate. Two more attempts on Canada were repulsed with great loss, 1813-14, and it is calculated that the Americans lost 50,000 men in these attempts on Canada. On sea, the Americans captured several British frigates, but the naval

supremacy of Britain was shewn in the famous 'ocean duel' between the British *Shannon* and the American *Chesapeake*, in which the latter was captured in fifteen minutes. In the month of August 1814, the English entered Washington, and destroyed most of the public buildings. In an attack on New Orleans, January 8, 1815, the British were repulsed with heavy loss, and it was with difficulty the residue of the English troops could be drawn off. Before this disastrous event, the treaty of Ghent, which terminated the war, was concluded, December 24, 1814.

RESULT.—*Great Britain retained every part of her North American possessions, and came out of the contest 'with a much stronger and more defensible colonial dominion than that with which she went into it.'*

REMOVAL OF RELIGIOUS DISABILITIES.

DATE AND REIGN—1828-29, GEORGE IV.

CAUSES.—1. *Rapid growth of Protestant dissenters in wealth and influence.* 2. *Popular agitation of Irish Roman Catholics, led by Daniel O'Connell.*

1. *Repeal of Test and Corporation Acts.*—The Test and Corporation Acts, passed in the reign of Charles II. amounted virtually to the exclusion of Protestant dissenters from all important official positions.

The increase of the dissenters during the Hanoverian period, may be traced in a large measure to the labours of Wesley and Whitefield. Many of them were persons of great wealth and influence, including many men of learning and ability.

The prime-minister (the Duke of Wellington) was averse to all concessions in favour of religious liberty, but a motion for the repeal of the acts was carried in the Commons against ministers by a large majority. Upon this the government abandoned opposition, and the *Test and Corporation Acts* were repealed in 1828. This was only a preliminary step to a still greater concession.

2. *Catholic Emancipation*.—An emancipation of the Roman Catholics from the disabilities by which they were precluded from sitting in parliament, had for some years received much attention. At the ‘union of Ireland,’ 1801, Mr Pitt promised the removal of the disabilities, but George III. would never consent to the proposal, as he regarded such concession a violation of his coronation oath.

The question, nevertheless, continued to gain ground; and the Irish Roman Catholics, led by the eloquent Daniel O’Connell, formed themselves into a ‘Catholic Association,’ to secure their political freedom. Nothing but the imminence of civil war decided the ministry of the Duke of Wellington to yield to the popular demand. In the year 1829, the *Catholic Relief Bill* passed both Houses of Parliament. According to its provisions, Roman Catholics were declared eligible to sit in parliament, and to hold all public offices except Regent, Lord Chancellor, or Viceroy of Ireland (April 13, 1829).

Note.—By the admission of Jews to parliament, under Lord Derby’s government, 1858, these measures of ‘relief’ became complete.

PASSING OF REFORM BILL.

DATE AND REIGN—1832, WILLIAM IV.

CAUSES.—1. *Growth of population and intelligence.* 2. *Changed distribution of the people.* 3. *Second revolution in France, 1830, by which the main line of the Bourbon family was expelled.*

By the second revolution in France, a new impulse was given to the reforming party in England ;
 DETAILS. and popular feeling in favour of reform in the representation of the House of Commons became so decided, that the Wellington ministry resigned office (November 15, 1830). The Duke had avowed in the strongest terms his determination to oppose any alteration in the existing system of representation. This avowal not only sealed the doom of his cabinet, but led to a measure of reform far more comprehensive than was at first anticipated.

A Whig ministry, led by Earl Grey, followed, on the understanding that it was to introduce bills of parliamentary reform. Owing chiefly to the increase of manufactures and commerce, such towns as Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds had in process of time attained a relative position of first-rate importance. But they were still without any representatives in parliament. On the other hand, many boroughs, which were formerly places of importance, but were now only towns in name, yet sent members to parliament. Moreover, these small towns, as they contained so few inhabitants, were generally under the influence of the neighbouring landed gentry. It was therefore thought by the reformers that members of parliament for these rotten or pocket boroughs should be transferred to the large towns. Further, the reforming

party was desirous that the franchise should be extended, so as to include the middle as well as the higher classes. As the adoption of these proposals would, from their very nature, limit the power of the aristocracy, and increase that of the people, much opposition was shewn by the Conservative party. On the 1st of March 1831, Lord John Russell introduced the government Reform Bill into the House of Commons; but the opposition offered to it was so strong, that by the advice of the ministers the king dissolved parliament, April 22, 1831.

The new elections gave the government a large majority; but though the bill passed the Commons, it was rejected by the Lords. Alarming riots now took place in several parts of the country, notably at Bristol, Nottingham, and Derby. Before these disturbances, the king had prorogued parliament; and when it reassembled, 6th December, there was still opposition on the part of the peers. As there seemed no prospect of the bill passing through the Upper House, the king agreed to create a sufficient number of new peers to insure its passing. To prevent the adoption of this course, a considerable number of Conservative peers absented themselves from parliament, and the bill accordingly became law, June 7, 1832.

RESULT.—‘*Transfer of a considerable degree of power from the aristocracy to the middle classes, who thereupon gained a widely extended influence as respects legislation and the ordinary administration of affairs.*’ According to the provisions of the Reform Bill: (1) Several towns, which had risen to importance, became entitled to return members to parliament; (2) A number of rotten or pocket boroughs were disfranchised; (3) The right of voting in towns was given to the owners or tenants of houses worth £10 a year or upwards; (4) For county members, all

were entitled to vote who owned land worth £10 a year, or who paid a yearly rent of at least £50 for their holdings.

CANADIAN INSURRECTION.

DATE AND REIGN—1837-38, VICTORIA.

CAUSES.—1. *Alleged political grievances of Canadians.*
2. *Sympathy shewn by United States' adventurers.*

In December 1837, the whole of Canada was in a state of rebellion. Owing to the severity of the winter, English troops were prevented from arriving to assist in quelling the rising. But the attempts on the part of American sympathisers to invade Canada were at once defeated. The President of the United States (Van Buren) adopted measures to prevent the conveyance of recruits and stores to the rebels. Toronto was attacked, but unsuccessfully; and the military in the colony, aided by the loyal part of the population, proved sufficient to quell the revolt.

RESULT.—*Legislative union of the two Canadas, February 10, 1841.*

CHARTIST RISING.

DATE AND REIGN—1838-39, VICTORIA.

CAUSE.—*Agitation among the labouring classes (chiefly in manufacturing districts) for a further extension of reform.*

The Reform Bill of 1832 had not satisfied the great mass of people in the manufacturing districts. A political body, deriving their name (Chartists) from the charter of liberties which they deemed necessary, began in 1838 to assume some

importance. The first great meeting was held in Birmingham, 6th August, and a petition was drawn up for the granting of the 'people's charter.' This embraced six points: (1) Annual parliaments, (2) Universal suffrage, (3) Vote by ballot, (4) Establishment of electoral districts, (5) Abolition of property qualification, (6) Payment of members of parliament.

A considerable number of the Chartists advocated the attainment of their object by physical force, and there was, in consequence, much disturbance in the manufacturing districts. A royal proclamation forbidding Chartist meetings was issued in December. At Newport, in Monmouthshire, about five thousand persons were collected for the purpose of 'effecting a revolution' (November 4, 1839). The rioters were easily dispersed, and the ring-leaders—Frost a magistrate, and two of his associates, Williams and Jones—were arrested, and sentenced to death; but this sentence was afterwards commuted to transportation for life.

RESULT.—*A small but influential body of politicians—'attributing the origin of these disturbances, and the general distress under which the country laboured, rather to the high price of bread than defective government—originated a movement for the repeal of taxes on corn, 1838.'*

AFGHAN WAR.

DATE AND REIGN—1839-42, VICTORIA.

CAUSE.—*Desire on the part of England to secure the Indian empire from possible aggressive designs on the part of Russia.*

The state of Afghanistan lies between India and Persia, and Russian influence in the latter country
DETAILS. was at this time strong. Two rival candidates were now contesting for the throne of Afghanistan, Shah Sujah and Dost Mohammed, and the British supported the one hostile to Russia, namely, Shah Sujah. In 1839, British troops entered Cabul, the capital, to dethrone Dost Mohammed, and succeeded in placing Sujah on the throne, in August. But this triumph was more apparent than real, as the new ruler was intensely hated by the Afghans. On 25th November 1841, they broke out into open insurrection, and the British were hemmed in at Cabul by an Afghan force under Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mohammed. Sir William Macnaughten and other officers were invited to a conference, and basely murdered. The remnant of the army left Cabul to march to Jelalabad, a distance of ninety miles, through a rugged mountainous country, and in the most severe weather. Only one out of 17,000 arrived at Jelalabad to tell the tale of the disastrous march from Cabul. General Pollock, having gallantly fought his way through the Khyber Pass, marched on Cabul. After destroying the fortifications of that city, the British withdrew from the country.

[War again broke out with Afghanistan in 1878, through the refusal of the Ameer, Shere Ali, to admit a British mission. Early in 1879, Candahar and Jelalabad were occupied by the British, and terms of peace were

agreed to in May. In September the British resident, Sir Louis Cavagnari, and his staff were massacred, and Cabul was re-occupied. By the terms of peace it was arranged that there should be a British resident in Cabul, foreign affairs were to be conducted under British advice, and three valleys were annexed to British territory.]

WARS WITH CHINA.

DATE AND REIGN—1840-42, 1857-60, VICTORIA.

1. WAR OF 1840-42.

CAUSE.—*Contraband British trade in opium.*

A contraband trade in opium having sprung up, to the great annoyance of the Chinese authorities, an edict was at length issued by that government, aiming at the total extinction of the opium trade. Canton was in consequence blockaded by a British fleet, and Amoy and Shanghai captured. The appearance of British troops before Nankin, under Sir Henry Pottinger, induced the Chinese to sign a treaty of peace, 29th August 1842. 'This war was neither just nor glorious, and inflicted indelible disgrace on England.'

RESULT.—*Hong-Kong surrendered to the British, and besides Canton, the ports of Amoy, Foo-choo, Ningpo, and Shanghai were opened to foreign trade.*

2. WAR OF 1857-60.

CAUSE.—*Outrage on a British vessel.*

Since the peace of 1842, British relations with China had been more or less disturbed. Some Chinese police seized the crew of the British ship *Arrow*, and pulled down the British flag, October 1856. As the Chinese authorities refused

to apologise, the Canton forts were attacked, and the city taken, January 1858. In April, the English and French fleets entered the Peiho river, and arrived at Tien-Tsin, about eighty miles from Pekin. The emperor sent commissioners, and a treaty of peace was agreed on, June 26, 1858, which provided that the British should have a resident minister at Pekin, that additional ports should be opened for commerce, that British subjects should be allowed to visit any part of China, and that Christianity should be tolerated. To enforce the ratification of this treaty, the allies resolved to force the passage of the Peiho, but this attempt ended disastrously, June 1859. An army under Sir Hope Grant, supported by a French army (a fleet under Admiral Hope effectually co-operating with the land forces), after several skirmishes, advanced on Pekin. A convention was signed within the walls of the city, October 24, 1860, by which ample apology was awarded to the British, and the treaty of 1858 confirmed, with some modifications.

RESULT.—*Increased trade with China.*

SIKH WARS.

DATE AND REIGN—1845-49, VICTORIA.

CAUSE.—*Disputed succession, and military anarchy in the Punjab.*

The Punjab had been seized by the Sikhs, a brave and warlike people, in the middle of the eighteenth century. Their government was now distracted by revolutions, murder, and rapine; the device was accordingly adopted of diverting

the attention of the people from the disturbances at home by advancing across the river Sutlej to invade British territory. An unprovoked attack being made on the British at *Moodkee*, December 18, 1845, the Sikhs were repulsed. Three days later was fought the battle of *Ferozeshah*, in which Sir Hugh Gough and Sir Henry Hardinge defeated the Sikhs, seized their camp, and drove them across the Sutlej. The British were again victorious at *Aliwal* under Sir Harry Smith, January 28, 1846; and the campaign was brought to a successful termination by another victory at *Sobraon*, gained by Sir Hugh Gough, February 10, 1846. The conquerors now advanced to Lahore, and dictated terms of peace.

The war was renewed by the Sikhs, 1848; but they were defeated at *Kineyree*, 18th June, by Lieutenant Edwardes, 'who at this critical juncture acted with remarkable energy and prudence.' Lord Gough attacked the enemy in a strong position at *Chillianwallah*, January 13, 1849, but with an indecisive result and heavy loss. He, however, retrieved this disaster by gaining a complete victory at *Goojerat*, February 21, 1849. This success brought the war to a close.

RESULT.—*Punjab (or Sikh) territory annexed to British dominions.*

REPEAL OF CORN LAWS

DATE AND REIGN—1846, VICTORIA.

CAUSES.—1. *Succession of bad harvests, and general distress of labouring classes.* 2. *Exertions of Anti-Corn-Law League.*

The corn grown in England had till recent times generally sufficed to meet the annual consumption; but in consequence of the increase of population, and the number of hands employed in manufactures, it was found no longer safe to depend on the home supply.

DETAILS. The *Anti-Corn-Law League* was formed on 31st March 1841. It was organised to procure the free importation of foreign corn, as well as to promote free-trade generally. The most eloquent supporters of the League were Richard Cobden and John Bright. It succeeded so far, in 1842, as to induce parliament to pass a law which diminished the duty on foreign corn in proportion to the price of that which was home-grown. This scale of duties was known as the 'sliding scale;' but it worked so unsatisfactorily as to induce the Leaguers to combine with fresh vigour for nothing less than the total repeal of the duties on foreign corn. A deficiency in the harvest of 1842, and a blight which almost destroyed the potato crop in England and Ireland, brought the matter to a speedy issue.

In the parliamentary session of 1845, Sir Robert Peel, the Conservative prime-minister, who had hitherto, as the representative of his party, opposed the proposals of the League, announced that he had become convinced of the necessity for a repeal of the Corn Laws. A

measure for their repeal was carried in the face of strong opposition, and became law, June 26, 1846.

RESULTS.—1. *Complete disruption of the great Conservative party, of which Sir Robert Peel was the leader.*
2. *Extension of free-trade.*

WAR WITH RUSSIA.

DATE AND REIGN—1854-56, VICTORIA.

CAUSES.—1. *Quarrels between Greek and Latin monks for precedence at the Holy Sepulchre.* 2. *Demand of Russia for protectorate of the Christian subjects of Turkey.*

1. *Outbreak of War.*—England, France, Austria, and Prussia endeavoured by peaceable means to

DETAILS. prevent a rupture between Russia and Turkey, but failed. As England and France deemed the aggressive policy of Russia incompatible with the peace of Europe, they allied themselves with Turkey, and declared war against Russia, March 27, 1854. These powers were afterwards joined by Sardinia, 1855. A well-equipped English fleet, under *Sir Charles Napier*, was despatched to the Baltic, having for its main object the capture of *Cronstadt*, the key to St Petersburg. A large army of French under *Marshal St Arnaud*, and of English under *Lord Raglan*, landed at Eupatoria, in the Crimea, about twenty miles from Sebastopol, the principal naval port in the Black Sea, without opposition, September 14 to 18, 1854.

2. *War on the Danube.*—The Russians invaded Moldavia and Walachia, which they wished to hold as a 'material guarantee,' July 2, 1853. This step led

Turkey to declare war, 5th October. The Russians were defeated at *Oltenitza* by Omar Pasha, November 4, 1853. Siege of *Silistria* by Russians—repulsed June 23, 1854. This success on the part of the Turks was balanced by the destruction of a Turkish fleet at *Sinope*.

3. *War in the Crimea*.—Battle of the *Alma*, September 20, 1854. Raglan and St Arnaud defeated Russians under Prince Menchikoff, after many hours' hard fighting. Battle of *Balaklava*, October 25, 1854. Russians under General Liprandi repulsed. Celebrated charge of the English Light Brigade, led by Lord Cardigan, against the whole Russian army. Out of 670 that rode into the Russian ranks, only 200 returned unhurt. Battle of *Inkermann*, November 5, 1854. Russians, under cover of a dense mist, attempted to surprise the English army. The English maintained their position with great bravery, against tremendous odds, for some hours, till relieved by the French under General Bosquet. Russians now driven from the field with heavy loss.

4. *Expedition to Sea of Azof* by English and French fleets. Vast granaries destroyed at Kertch and other places, May 1855. This accelerated the fall of Sebastopol. Battle of *Tchernaya*. Russians defeated by French and Sardinians, August 16, 1855. *Sebastopol* captured by allies, after one of the most obstinate sieges recorded in history, September 8, 1855. The fall of Sebastopol virtually put an end to the war. Owing to the severity of the climate, and the mismanagement of the commissariat, the English soldiers suffered severely. To administer to the comfort of the sick and wounded, Miss Florence Nightingale and a band of devoted ladies arrived in the Crimea.

5. *War in Asia*.—Russians harassed by the Circassians under Schamyl. Kars bravely defended by General

Williams, though eventually captured by Russians under Mouravieff, November 25, 1855.

6. *War in the Baltic*.—Nothing of importance was effected in the Baltic by Sir Charles Napier. The fortress of Bomarsund, on Aland Islands, was taken; but the principal object of the war, the capture of Cronstadt, was not attained.

RESULTS.—*Treaty of peace at Paris, March 30, 1856. Russian protectorate in Moldavia and Walachia abolished. Christian subjects of Turkey placed under the protection of the contracting powers. Mouths of the Danube open to all powers. Russian fleets forbidden to enter the Black Sea.*

INDIAN MUTINY.

DATE AND REIGN—1857, VICTORIA.

CAUSES.—1. *Prevalent idea among the natives of British India that the government contemplated the conversion of the sepoys (native soldiers) by force of arms.* 2. IMMEDIATE CAUSE: *Introduction of greased cartridges.*

The mutiny broke out at *Meerut*, near *Delhi*, May 10, 1857, by the 3d Bengal Cavalry attacking the prison where

DETAILS. some of their comrades had been confined for refusing to use greased cartridges. 'A report was spread that the grease used was a mixture of cows' fat and hogs' lard, a composition equally offensive to the Hindu and Mohammedan, as the former regards the cow with veneration, while the latter deems the hog an abomination.' The imprisoned soldiers were liberated, and several British officers, with their wives and children, were slain by the mutineers.

By the seizure of *Delhi*, the insurgents became possessed of immense military stores. Both there and at *Cawnpore* the English residents were mercilessly massacred. At the latter place *Nana Sahib* caused all the women and children to be slaughtered.

Sir John Lawrence prevented the mutiny from extending to the *Punjab* ; and chiefly owing to his exertions, an army was collected for the recapture of *Delhi*, which was effected by General *Wilson*, September 20, 1857.

Of the beleaguered garrisons, that 'of Lucknow surpassed all the others in its sufferings and courage.' It was first relieved by General *Havelock* and Sir James Outram ; afterwards by *Sir Colin Campbell* (Lord Clyde), who had been despatched to India as Commander-in-chief.

From this time the tide may be said to have turned in favour of the English, although much still remained to be done before the rebellion was finally trampled out.

RESULTS.—1. *Abolition of East India Company, and government of India given to the Queen, August 3, 1858.* 2. *The Great Mogul banished, and his office abolished.*

ABYSSINIAN WAR.

DATE AND REIGN—1868, VICTORIA.

CAUSE.—*Refusal of Theodore, king of Abyssinia, to liberate some British subjects whom he had seized.*

The representations of the British cabinet respecting the release of the captives having been disregarded by
DETAILS. King Theodore, it was resolved to obtain their liberation by force of arms. Accordingly, *Sir Robert Napier* (now Lord Napier of Magdala) was intrusted with the command of an expedition for the invasion of Abyssinia, and landed at *Annesley Bay*, on the shore of the Red Sea, with a force of 12,000 men. The advance on *Magdala*, the capital of Abyssinia, was seriously impeded by the mountainous nature of the country, but the engineering skill brought into play by the British surmounted all obstacles. Encouraged by the presence of British troops, the subjects of King Theodore rose in rebellion against him. Notwithstanding this, he still refused to accede to the demands of the invaders, and the rock of Magdala (where Theodore intrenched himself) was successfully stormed by the British, April 12, 1868. Driven to despair by his reverses, the king put an end to his life, and the war was thus brought to a close.

RESULT.—*Liberation of the captives.*

ASHANTEE WAR.

DATE AND REIGN—1873-74, VICTORIA.

CAUSE.—*The invasion of a district on the gold coast of Africa under British protection, by Koffee-Calcalli, king of Ashantee.*

In the beginning of 1873 the Ashantees invaded the protected country round Cape Coast Castle, and attacked unsuccessfully Elmina. To punish and curb them effectually, the British government despatched, toward the close of the year, Major-general Sir Garnet Wolseley to invade Ashantee, and by February 1874 he had reached and captured Coomassie, the capital.

ZULU WAR.

DATE AND REIGN—1879, VICTORIA.

CAUSE.—*The refusal by Cetewayo, king of the Zulus, to disband an army assembled on the borders of Natal.*

Early in 1879 the British army crossed the frontier of Natal, and encountered a fierce resistance from the warlike Zulus, who inflicted a severe blow on the British camp at Isandhlwana. Several attacks on Zulu strongholds were repulsed; but the Zulus were defeated at Ginghilovo, and their power completely broken by Lord Chelmsford at Ulundi on 3d July. The Prince Imperial of France, who had joined the army, was slain on 1st June. King Cetewayo was captured, after Ulundi, and conveyed to Cape Town. By the terms of peace, the country was divided amongst thirteen chiefs, and a portion of territory was ceded to Britain.

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS ON THE
HANOVERIAN PERIOD.

The *British Constitution*, in its present form, has been the growth of ages, and hence principles, naturally inconsistent, have gradually blended, so as to form one harmonious whole. The three estates of the realm are the King, Lords, and Commons.

The *Executive*—that is, the power by which the laws

are enforced, is intrusted to a hereditary monarch, who rules under considerable limitations.

The *Legislature*—that is, the power by which the laws are framed, consists of three distinct but combined powers, the King, Lords, and Commons, professedly equal, the consent of all being necessary to any alteration in the laws. But the real power of the legislature rests with the House of Commons, as *it commands the supplies*, and is thus in a position effectually to control the sovereign. No tax can be levied, and no grant of money made, but by the consent of the Commons. The House of Lords consists of lords spiritual and temporal—namely, 26 prelates of the Church of England, and the hereditary peers of England; also a certain number of lords representing the Scottish and the Irish peerage. The number of lords temporal is unsettled, and can be increased by the sovereign. The House of Lords is the highest judicial court in the empire. The House of Commons consists of 658 members, of which England returns 463; Wales, 30; Scotland, 60; Ireland, 105. The sovereign rules through his ministers, the chief of whom form the *Cabinet*, at the head of which is the First Lord of the Treasury, or the premier.

Since the accession of the Hanoverian dynasty, the sovereign has ceased to attend the meetings of the cabinet. George I. was almost totally ignorant of the English language, and hence, instead of attending the meetings of his cabinet, was satisfied to be informed of the results of its deliberations. This practice was followed by his successors, and has now acquired the validity of constitutional right.

Language and Literature.—From the time of Elizabeth, when modern English was first introduced, the changes in the language have been very inconsiderable. ‘There has been a growing tendency in the present century to

adopt in prose a far less stiff and exquisitely accurate style than in the preceding one, while in poetry the aim has been to portray in simplest words the homeliest feelings of the heart.'

The English language is now spoken by upwards of seventy millions of people in different parts of the globe. The rapid extension of literature is a remarkable feature of the period. 'Of all the reforms produced by the Revolution, perhaps the most important was the full establishment of the liberty of unlicensed printing.'

Newspapers first acquired political importance in the reign of George II. Sir Robert Walpole liberally pensioned various editors who supported his government. The *Times* of November 28, 1814, was the first newspaper printed by steam. A monthly paper, containing the best articles from the newspapers, entitled the *Gentleman's Magazine*, first appeared in 1731, and was the parent of the numerous magazines of the present day. Chiefly owing to the exertions of Sir Rowland Hill, the penny post was made general throughout the United Kingdom in 1840. Above 600 million letters and 100 million newspapers and book-parcels now pass through the post-office yearly.

Principal Authors.—(1.) *Poets*: Pope (1688-1744), Gay (1688-1732), Young (1681-1765), Thomson (1700-1748), Gray (1716-1771), Goldsmith (1728-1774), Cowper (1731-1800), Burns (1759-1796), Coleridge (1772-1834), Wordsworth (1770-1850), Scott (1771-1832), Montgomery (1771-1854), Southey (1774-1843), Campbell (1777-1844), Moore (1779-1852), Byron (1788-1824). (2.) *Prose Writers*—*Theological*: Bishop Butler (1692-1752), Bishop Warburton (1698-1779), Doddridge (1702-1751), Paley (1743-1805), Robert Hall (1764-1831), John Foster (1770-1843), Dr Chalmers (1780-1847), Dr Arnold (1795-1842). *Historians*: Hume (1711-1776),

Henry (1718-1790), Robertson (1721-1793), Gibbon (1737-1794), Mackintosh (1765-1832), Lingard (1771-1851), Hallam (1777-1859), Macaulay (1800-1859). *Novelists*: Richardson (1689-1761), Fielding (1707-1754), Smollett (1721-1771), Miss Burney (1752-1840), Mrs Radcliffe (1764-1823), Sir Walter Scott (1771-1832), Thackeray (1811-1863), Charles Dickens (1812-1870). *Miscellaneous Writers*: Johnson (1709-1784), Adam Smith (1723-1790), Blackstone (1723-1780), Burke (1730-1797), Hannah More (1745-1833), Bentham (1748-1832), Sydney Smith (1771-1845).

The Navy.—The triumphs of the British navy in the wars against Napoleon firmly re-established Great Britain as the mistress of the ocean, and defeated his project of making a successful descent on England. These triumphs had not only the effect of increasing the naval prestige of the country, and repelling an invasion, but of maintaining her commercial prosperity during the long war with France. The number of men employed in the navy during the time of Nelson was about 200,000. At the present time there are about 260 ships of war, some iron and iron-clad, and 54,000 men employed in the naval service, including marines. Including naval volunteers and reserve, there are nearly 60,000 men. The principal stations of the navy are known from the names given to portions of the fleet on active service—that is, the Mediterranean fleet, the Australian fleet, &c.

The Army.—After the military successes of Marlborough, there was hardly an instance of the most trifling success by land on the part of the British army until the Peninsular War. In this war the best marshals of France were successively vanquished by Wellington, who added to the glory of his victories by the decisive triumph of Waterloo. The achievements of the English army in the Crimea and India have since reflected additional lustre on

its fame. 'The old national antipathy to a standing army has gradually yielded to the force of circumstances. Before the Revolution our ancestors had known a standing army only as an instrument of lawless power.' So late as the reign of William III. the debates in parliament shewed that popular feeling was still strong against the establishment of a permanent military force. The Declaration of Rights provided 'that the raising or keeping of a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless with the consent of parliament, is against the law.' The British army at present numbers above 200,000 men. This does not include the militia, above 150,000; the volunteers, above 180,000; and the yeomanry cavalry, about 15,000 men.

Progress of Science.—The origin of the *steam-engine* dates from 1683. By the improvements effected in it by James Watt, who commenced his experiments about 1762, a superior mechanical power was obtained for the working of machinery and other purposes. One of the first results of Watt's labours was the establishment of the cotton manufacture. In connection with this manufacture it may be mentioned that James Hargreaves, a carpenter of Blackburn, invented the *spinning-jenny*, and Richard Arkwright, a barber, the *spinning-frame*. Steam-power was first successfully applied to the purpose of propelling vessels at the beginning of the present century. The first *steam-boat* was launched on the Clyde, 1811. The first English *railway*, designed and constructed by George Stephenson and his son Robert, was opened between Liverpool and Manchester, September 15, 1830. *Electric telegraphs*, invented in 1837, are now laid along the different lines of railways, carrying messages from one end of the country to another with the speed of thought. *Submarine telegraphs* followed: the greatest success in connection with these was the laying of the

Atlantic cable, in 1866, from Valencia Bay in Ireland to Trinity Bay in Newfoundland. *Gas-lights* were first used at Redruth in Cornwall, 1792, and their adoption soon became extensive. *Astronomy* was successfully studied by Dr William Herschel (1738–1822), who, in 1781, discovered the planet Uranus. Lord Rosse finished his great telescope in 1844. *Chemistry* was improved by Dr Joseph Black, Henry Cavendish, and Dr Joseph Priestley. Sir Humphry Davy (1778–1829) invented the *safety-lamp* for miners. The *Britannia Tubular Bridge*, across the Menai Straits, designed by Sir W. Fairbairn and Robert Stephenson, was opened in 1850. The longest bridge in the world, the *Tay Bridge*, designed by Sir T. Bouch, was opened in 1878.

Trade and Commerce.—The vast increase in the trade of the country is due to the invention and perfection of the steam-engine. Simultaneously with the introduction of steam as applied to manufactures, the important towns of South Lancashire, Cheshire, and the West Riding of Yorkshire, sprung into importance. The principal manufactures are cotton, woollen, and iron. Most of the manufactures are carried on near the coal-fields in the north and north-west of England. The principal ports are London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, Newcastle, Plymouth, Sunderland, Whitehaven, Cardiff, and Swansea. The commerce of England is now greater than that of any other country. The principal exports are manufactured goods (cotton, woollen, and hardware); and the principal imports, raw material for manufacture, and colonial produce. About one-third of the foreign trade is carried on with the colonies, and an extensive trade is also carried on with the United States, France, Germany, Belgium, Russia, Turkey, China, and Holland.

Population.—Despite an extensive and constant emigration to the British dependencies and United States,

the population of the country has largely increased during the last hundred and fifty years. The population of the British Islands is upwards of thirty millions, of which England alone contains nearly twenty-three millions. The six largest towns are : London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, and Dublin.

WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.

BORN 1708—DIED 1778.

The Pitt family was wealthy and respectable. William Pitt, son of Robert Pitt, and grandson of Thomas Pitt, governor of Madras, was born at Boconnoc, in Cornwall, and educated at Eton and Oxford. On leaving Oxford, he served for a short time as a cornet in the Life Guards Blue.

He was returned member of parliament in 1735 for Old Sarum, and joined the ranks of the opposition, where his eloquence and ability soon attracted the attention of the House, and caused much annoyance to the ministry. He was in consequence dismissed from the army by Sir Robert Walpole, then prime-minister. In 1746, Pitt accepted a subordinate post in the *Pelham* ministry, but, owing to the dislike of the king—whom he had offended by some remarks on Hanover, during debates in the House—no promotion followed for some time.

After the death of Pelham (1754), the king at length found it necessary to include Pitt in the ministry, and accordingly, in 1756, he became Secretary of State, with the lead of the House of Commons. The king's antipathy to Pitt, however, continued, and early in the next year, the government was again broken up. But the 'Great Commoner' had such power in the House, and

favour with the people, that it was again found necessary to intrust him with office, and he resumed his place as Secretary of State, with the lead of the House. The succeeding years of his administration were distinguished by the brilliant successes of the army in Canada and India.

When the proposal to tax the American colonies was brought forward by the *Grenville* ministry in 1765, Pitt used all his eloquence to prevent the carrying of any such measure, but failed. He lived to see its disastrous effects in the American War of Independence. In 1766, he was raised to the head of the administration, and took his seat in the Upper House, as Earl of Chatham, but resigned office in 1768. His health, always delicate, was now such as to prevent his taking an active part in the government. His last speech in the House of Lords was against a motion for giving up the American colonies (1778), the consequence of the policy he had so deprecated. While speaking on the subject with great ardour, he fell in a fit on the floor, and expired a month later, May 11, 1778. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

ROBERT, LORD CLIVE.

BORN 1725—DIED 1774.

Robert Clive was born at Styche, near Market-Drayton, in Shropshire, on a small estate which had been held by his family ever since the twelfth century. As a child, his disposition gave great uneasiness to his family, being passionate, headstrong, wilful, and daring. In his eighteenth year he was sent to Madras, as a writer in the East India Company, 1744. This employment suited

him so little, that he twice attempted suicide. The opportunity of escape from his monotonous work came during the capture of Madras by the French, when Clive obtained an ensign's commission under the Company. Eminently suited to a military life, the unsettled state of India gave full scope to his talents, and in 1748 he was promoted to the rank of captain.

The French, under Dupleix, a man of great talent and ambition, were at this time making great conquests in India, and threatened to become masters of the whole peninsula. It was Clive's fortune to turn the tide of war, and to found a British empire in India.

By the victory of Arcot, 1751, he effectually checked the power of the French, which, despite the efforts of Dupleix, from this time steadily declined, as the power of the English increased.

In 1756, Suraja Dowlah having made war on the English, and sacked Calcutta, Clive was appointed to the head of an expedition to punish the nabob, and avenge his cruelties. The victory of Plassey in 1757 gave to the English complete ascendancy in India. Suraja Dowlah was deposed, and nearly three millions of compensation-money was paid by the natives.

Clive was appointed to the head of affairs under the title of Governor of Bengal. During his administration, he contended successfully with disaffected native troops, allies of the Great Mogul; and repulsed the Dutch in their attempt to injure the English ascendancy in Bengal.

In 1760, declining health compelled Clive to return to England; but India soon after became so fearfully distracted and unsettled, that he once more returned to the scene of his early triumphs, with full power as Commander-in-chief of Bengal (1765). In the short space of eighteen months he succeeded in settling all disturbances, effected many salutary reforms, and returned to England

in 1767, where he lived in great magnificence on the wealth he had acquired in India.

In 1773, charges were brought against him of having illegally obtained his wealth, and the subject was carefully reviewed in the House of Commons. The result, on the whole, was in his favour, though he did not altogether escape blame. From this time his health rapidly gave way. He became subject to fits of melancholy, partly induced by opium taken to relieve diseases contracted in India; and while under the influence of this depression of spirits, put an end to his life, having just completed his forty-ninth year.

WARREN HASTINGS.

BORN 1732—DIED 1818.

Warren Hastings—with whose name the foundation of the British empire in India is so closely associated—was born at Daylesford, a village in Worcestershire, and brought up by his grandfather, the rector of the parish. His ancestors were an ancient and illustrious race, but their wealth and influence had been lost in the cause of Charles I.; and it is related that Warren's ambition, when a child of seven years, was one day to win back the estates of his forefathers. This childish dream he lived to realise. His grandfather being too poor to advance him in life, at the age of seventeen he was shipped off to Bengal, as a writer in the East India Company. In this situation he remained till the outbreak of war on the succession of Suraja Dowlah to the government, when Warren Hastings joined the ranks of the volunteers under the famous Robert Clive.

In 1761, his diplomatic talents secured him a seat in the council at Calcutta, and on his return from a visit

to England, he was appointed member of council for Madras (1769). The step from this post to the Governorship of Bengal (1772) was an easy one, and in the next year he was declared Governor-general of India, by the 'Regulating Act,' passed by Lord North's ministry, 1773. While holding this high office, he effected many improvements in various departments of the government; but, unfortunately, he resorted in many cases to such arbitrary modes of obtaining money from the natives, especially the Begums of Oude, as to leave a stain on his administration.

Discussions on the state of India had from time to time been carried on in parliament, and resulted at length in the impeachment of Hastings, who had in the meantime resigned office, and returned to England. His trial commenced in the House of Lords, February 12, 1788. The prosecution was conducted by Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, the three greatest orators of the age. But the services he had undoubtedly rendered his country told much in his behalf, and judgment was at length given in his favour (April 23, 1795), but not until he had been nearly ruined by the law-expenses of the trial. The East India Company having settled upon him an annuity of £4000, he retired to Daylesford, where he spent the remainder of his life. He died at the age of eighty-six, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

HORATIO, LORD NELSON.

BORN 1758—DIED 1805.

Horatio Nelson was born at Burnham-Thorpe, in Norfolk, of which village his father was rector. When only twelve years old, he entered the naval service as

midshipman, and passed with credit through the various grades, attaining the rank of post-captain in 1779.

After serving in the West Indies, he married, and retired into private life till 1793, in which year he was appointed to join Lord Hood in the Mediterranean. While engaged in this service, he played a conspicuous part in the battle of St Vincent (1797) under Sir John Jervis, and was knighted for the skill and courage he displayed during the engagement. He next distinguished himself in an engagement with the French fleet in the Bay of Aboukir, known as the Battle of the Nile (1798), where, out of thirteen French ships engaged, he captured nine, and destroyed two. For this victory he was rewarded with a peerage.

In 1801, an English fleet was despatched to the Baltic. Lord Nelson was appointed second in command, and succeeded in nearly destroying or capturing the entire Danish fleet in a battle off Copenhagen, 2d April. But his most brilliant success was yet to come. In 1805, after traversing the Atlantic in search of the combined French and Spanish fleets, Lord Nelson arrived in sight of his antagonists off Cape Trafalgar, 21st October. After giving his last famous signal: 'England expects every man to do his duty,' the action commenced. Victory speedily followed; but towards the close of the engagement, Nelson was mortally wounded, and expired shortly after. His remains were brought to England, and interred in St Paul's Cathedral, with every demonstration of affection and respect.

WILLIAM PITT.

BORN 1759—DIED 1806.

William Pitt, second son of the Earl of Chatham, was born at Hayes, in Kent, and, owing to his extreme delicacy, was educated at home by private tutors, until the age of fifteen, when he was sent to Cambridge. In 1780, he was called to the bar, and soon after took his seat in the House of Commons as member for Appleby. His first appearance in the House produced a most favourable impression, which was fully sustained throughout the session. On the re-assembling of parliament, Pitt continued to take part in the debates with even more brilliancy than before, and he was already spoken of as a leading man in the House.

In the ministry of Rockingham that followed, Pitt was offered the Vice-treasurership of Ireland, which he declined, as he had resolved to accept no office unless it entitled him to a seat in the cabinet. His ambition was fulfilled in 1783, when, though only in his twenty-fifth year, so great were his talents and power, both as a statesman and an orator, that he was appointed premier. 'He was now the greatest subject that England had seen for many generations.' The administration thus commenced, lasted seventeen years, and was marked throughout by the ability and skilful tactics of its leader.

In 1800, Pitt succeeded in incorporating the Irish with the British Parliament; but, in consequence of his inability to carry out a scheme for removing the religious disabilities of Roman Catholics, he resigned office the following year, and was succeeded by Mr Addington. On the resignation of the Addington administration in 1804, Pitt was again appointed premier; but the anxieties and toil of a public life had so enfeebled his naturally

weak constitution, that he did not long survive the appointment.

He died on the 23d of January 1806, the twenty-fifth anniversary of the day on which he first took his seat in parliament, and was buried near his father, the Earl of Chatham, in Westminster Abbey.

ARTHUR WELLESLEY, DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

BORN 1769—DIED 1852.

Arthur Wellesley, third son of Lord Mornington, was born in Ireland, the exact place being uncertain. He received his education at Eton, and afterwards at a military school at Angers, in France, the country of which he lived to become such a successful opponent. In 1787 he entered the army as ensign, and in the course of six years rose to the rank of Lieutenant-colonel. Three years later, he joined his regiment in India, and took part in the siege of Seringapatam (1799). In 1802 he was made Major-general, and engaged in the war with the Mahrattas, whom he defeated in the battles of Assaye and Argaum (1803). He returned to England in 1805, and the following year was elected M.P. for the borough of Rye.

During the expedition to Copenhagen (1807), Sir Arthur Wellesley served under Lord Cathcart, and in 1808 sailed for Portugal in command of the English forces, to conduct the *Peninsular War*. Then followed a series of brilliant successes, extending over seven years, during which he was successively created Baron, Viscount, Earl, Marquis, and Duke.

In 1815 the Duke of Wellington proceeded to superintend the military state of Belgium, when his last and greatest military success was achieved at the famous

battle of Waterloo, 18th June, which resulted in the overthrow of Napoleon, and the restoration of peace to Europe.

On his return to England the Duke took a prominent part in politics, and was for more than two years prime-minister.

He died suddenly, September 14, 1852, at Walmer Castle, his official residence as Warden of the Cinque Ports—which office, among many others, he then held—and was buried close by Lord Nelson in St Paul's Cathedral.

LIST OF ENGLISH MONARCHS,
FROM THE REIGN OF JAMES I. TO THE ACCESSION OF
VICTORIA.
1603 to 1837.

I. STUART LINE.

RULED ENGLAND 111 YEARS.

James I. (son of Mary, queen of Scots, and nearest kinsman to Elizabeth).....	1603
Charles I. son.....	1625
Commonwealth (during which Oliver Cromwell ruled as Protector).....	1649
Charles II. son of Charles I.....	1660
James II. brother.....	1685
William III. nephew }	
Mary II. daughter... }	1689
Anne, daughter of James II.....	1702

II. HANOVERIAN LINE.

HAS RULED ENGLAND FROM 1714.

George I. great-grandson of James I.....	1714
George II. son.....	1727
George III. grandson.....	1760
George IV. son.....	1820
William IV. brother.....	1830
Victoria, niece.....	1837

SUMMARY OF LEADING EVENTS.

PART I.

FROM THE REIGN OF WILLIAM I. TO ELIZABETH.

I. NORMAN LINE, 1066-1154.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
WILLIAM I.....	1066.	Accession of William.
	1071.	England finally subdued.
	1075.	Insurrection of Norman barons.
	1077.	Robert, eldest son of William, revolts.
	1087.	Death of William I.
WILLIAM II.....	1087.	Accession of William II.
	1090.	William invaded Normandy. Treaty of Caen.
	1096.	First Crusade undertaken.
	1100.	King shot in New Forest.
HENRY I.....	1100.	Accession of Henry I.
	1106.	Normandy conquered by Henry, who carried his brother Robert prisoner to England.
	1119.	Battle of Brenville.
	1120.	Prince William, son of Henry, drowned. Matilda, daughter of Henry, now became heir to the throne.
	1135.	Death of Henry I.
STEPHEN.....	1135.	Stephen, grandson of William I. usurped the throne. Civil war in consequence during nearly whole of reign.
	1138.	Battle of Standard.
	1141.	Battle of Lincoln. Stephen defeated, and Matilda ascended the throne.
	1146.	Matilda retired to Normandy.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
	1153.	Treaty of Winchester.
	1154.	Death of Stephen.

II. PLANTAGENET LINE (MAIN BRANCH), 1154-1399.

HENRY II.....	1154.	Accession of Henry II.
	1164.	Constitutions of Clarendon passed.
	1170.	Becket assassinated.
	1172.	Conquest of Ireland.
	1174.	William the Lion, king of Scots, defeated and captured at Alnwick.
	1189.	Death of Henry II.
RICHARD I.....	1189.	Accession of Richard I.
	1190.	Persecution of Jews.
	1191.	Acre captured by Crusaders, mainly through the valour of the English king, who had joined the third crusade.
	1192.	Richard captured by the Duke of Austria on his journey home.
	1199.	Death of Richard I.
JOHN.....	1199.	Accession of John.
	1204.	Normandy conquered by Philip Augustus.
	1207-13.	King John's quarrel with Pope Inno- cent III.
	1215.	Signing of Magna Charta, 15th June.
	1216.	Death of John.
HENRY III.....	1216.	Accession of Henry III.
	1217.	French defeated in the streets of Lincoln, and left the country the same year.
	1258.	Mad Parliament met at Oxford.
	1264.	Battle of Lewes ; baronial party successful.
	1265.	Leicester's Parliament met in London, 20th January. Burgesses first summoned. Battle of Evesham ; baronial party de- feated, and Leicester slain.
	1272.	Death of Henry III.
EDWARD I.....	1272.	Accession of Edward I.
	1282.	Conquest of Wales completed.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
	1284.	Title of Prince of Wales given to eldest son of king of England.
	1290.	Disputed succession in Scotland owing to death of Margaret, Maid of Norway.
	1296.	Subjugation of Scotland.
	1297.	Battle of Cambuskenneth, near Stirling; English routed by Wallace.
	1298.	Battle of Falkirk; Wallace defeated.
	1305.	Wallace executed.
	1306.	Comyn, Guardian of Scotland, murdered. Succeeded by Robert Bruce.
	1307.	Death of Edward I.

EDWARD II....	1307.	Accession of Edward II.
	1314.	Battle of Bannockburn, 24th June, which secured the independence of Scotland.
	1322.	Battle of Boroughbridge; Earl of Lancaster defeated and executed.
	1326.	Queen Isabella returned from France, and deposed her husband.
	1327.	King Edward II. murdered at Berkeley Castle.

EDWARD III....	1327.	Accession of Edward III.
	1333.	Battle of Halidon Hill; Scots defeated.
	1340.	Naval victory over the French at Sluys.
	1346.	Battle of Crecy, 26th August; French defeated. Scots defeated at Neville's Cross.
	1347.	Calais taken, 4th August.
	1356.	Battle of Poitiers, 19th September; French defeated, and their king, John, taken prisoner.
	1360.	Treaty of Bretigny.
	1376.	Death of the Black Prince.
	1377.	Death of Edward III.

RICHARD II. ..	1377.	Accession of Richard II.
	1381.	Rebellion of Wat Tyler.
	1388.	The Wonderful Parliament. Battle of Otterburn or Chevy Chase.
	1397.	Murder of the Duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
	1398.	Duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, banished.
	1399.	Death of John of Gaunt, and seizure of his estates by Richard. Invasion of Hereford (now Duke of Lancaster). Deposition of Richard II.

III. LANCASTRIAN LINE, 1399-1461.

HENRY IV.....	1399.	Accession of Henry IV.
	1401.	William Sawtré, a clergyman, burned for Lollardism.
	1403.	Rebellion of Percies. Battle of Shrewsbury, and death of Hotspur.
	1405.	Scrope, archbishop of York, executed.
	1408.	Battle of Bramham Moor; Earl of Northumberland slain.
	1413.	Death of Henry IV.

HENRY V.....	1413.	Accession of Henry V.
	1415.	Battle of Agincourt, 25th October.
	1417.	Execution of Lord Cobham.
	1420.	Treaty of Troyes, by which English acquired ascendancy in France.
	1422.	Death of Henry V.

HENRY VI.....	1422.	Accession of Henry VI.
	1424.	Battle of Verneuil; English under Bedford victorious.
	1429.	Siege of Orleans raised. Joan of Arc led French.
	1431.	Henry VI. crowned at Paris. Execution of Joan of Arc.
	1450.	Jack Cade's insurrection.
	1452.	Richard, Duke of York, claimed crown.
	1453.	End of English supremacy in France.
	1455.	Wars of Roses commenced. York victorious at first battle of St Albans.
	1460.	Battle of Wakefield; Richard, Duke of York, slain. Succeeded by his son Edward, afterwards Edward IV.
	1461.	Battle of Mortimer's Cross; Yorkists

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
		victorious. Edward, Duke of York, proclaimed king under title of Edward IV.

IV. YORKIST LINE, 1461-1485.

- EDWARD IV....1461. Accession of Edward IV. Battle of Towton.
1467. Rupture between Edward and Earl of Warwick (king-maker).
1470. Warwick fled to France. Joined Queen Margaret, and returned to England after an absence of five months. Edward fled to Flanders.
1471. Edward returned. Battle of Barnet; Warwick slain. Battle of Tewkesbury; Prince Edward, son of Henry VI. murdered. Supposed murder of Henry VI. in Tower.
1478. Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward, put to death.
1483. Death of Edward IV.

- EDWARD V.....1483. Accession of Edward V. Edward V. and his brother Richard, Duke of York, confined and murdered in Tower. Their uncle, the Protector—Richard, Duke of Gloucester—assumes crown.

- RICHARD III...1483. Accession of Richard III. Rebellion of Buckingham, who was executed same year.

1485. Invasion of Henry, Earl of Richmond. Battle of Bosworth Field, 22d August; Richard slain, and Earl of Richmond proclaimed king under title of Henry VII.

V. TUDOR LINE, 1485-1603.

- HENRY VII.....1485. Accession of Henry VII.

1486. Rival Roses united by Henry's marriage with Elizabeth of York.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
	1487.	Lambert Simnel, who personated Earl of Warwick (son of George, Duke of Clarence), defeated at the battle of Stoke.
	1492.	Perkin Warbeck appeared in Ireland as Richard, Duke of York (son of Edward IV.)
	1496.	Warbeck appeared in Scotland, where he was cordially received by James IV.
	1497.	Warbeck made a descent on Cornwall; captured and imprisoned.
	1499.	Perkin Warbeck and Earl of Warwick executed.
	1501.	Marriage of Henry's eldest son, Arthur, to Catharine of Aragon.
	1502.	Death of Arthur, Prince of Wales.
	1503.	Marriage of Henry's daughter, Margaret, with James IV. of Scotland.
	1509.	Death of Henry VII.

HENRY VIII....1509. Accession of Henry VIII.

- 1513. Battle of Flodden, 9th September; James IV. king of Scotland, slain. Battle of the Spurs.
- 1520. Field of Cloth of Gold.
- 1521. Henry received the title of 'Defender of the Faith.'
- 1529. Trial of Henry's suit for a divorce from Catharine of Aragon. Fall of Wolsey.
- 1530. Death of Wolsey.
- 1533. Cranmer pronounced king's divorce from Catharine of Aragon.
- 1534. Papal power in England overthrown.
- 1535. Execution of Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More.
- 1536. Wales first represented in English parliament. Pilgrimage of Grace.
- 1539. Law of the Six Articles passed.
- 1544. Capture of Boulogne.
- 1547. Execution of Earl of Surrey. Death of Henry VIII.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
EDWARD VI.....	1547.	Accession of Edward VI. Hertford (afterwards Duke of Somerset) made Protector. Battle of Pinkie; Scots defeated.
	1549.	The Book of Common Prayer adopted. Lord Seymour, Protector's brother, beheaded. Protector deposed.
	1550.	Earl of Warwick (afterwards Duke of Northumberland) Protector.
	1552.	Duke of Somerset beheaded.
	1553.	Death of Edward VI.
MARY I.....	1553.	Accession of Mary I. Lady Jane Grey—who had been proclaimed queen—deposed. Northumberland executed. Roman Catholic religion re-established.
	1554.	Wyatt's rebellion. Execution of Lady Jane Grey, Dudley, and Suffolk.
	1555.	Rogers, Latimer, and Ridley burned.
	1556.	Cranmer burned.
	1558.	Calais lost. Death of Mary I.
ELIZABETH.....	1558.	Accession of Elizabeth.
	1559.	Restoration of Protestant worship.
	1561.	Mary, queen of Scots, returned to Scotland.
	1567.	Murder of Darnley.
	1568.	Mary, who sought refuge in England, brought to trial, and detained prisoner.
	1572.	Duke of Norfolk executed.
	1586.	Battle of Zutphen, and death of Sir Philip Sidney. Babington's conspiracy. Mary, queen of Scots, tried and condemned.
	1587.	Mary, queen of Scots, executed, 8th February.
	1588.	Defeat of Spanish Armada.
	1596.	Expedition to Cadiz.
	1599.	Irish rebellion under Earl of Tyrone. Earl of Essex sent to quell rising, but failed.
	1601.	Conspiracy and execution of Essex.
	1602.	Tyrone submits.
	1603.	Death of Elizabeth.

PART II.

VI. STUART LINE, 1603-1714.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
JAMES I.....	1603.	Accession of James I. and Union of Crowns of England and Scotland.
	1604.	Hampton Court conference.
	1605.	Gunpowder Plot discovered, 5th November.
	1611.	Ulster colonised by English and Scotch Protestants.
	1612.	Death of Henry, Prince of Wales.
	1616.	Death of William Shakspeare.
	1618.	Sir Walter Raleigh executed.
	1621.	Impeachment and disgrace of Lord Bacon. Rupture between the king and the Commons.
	1623.	Prince Charles and Buckingham visited Madrid. Spanish match broken off.
	1624.	Spanish War begun.
	1625.	Death of James I.
CHARLES I.....	1625.	Accession of Charles I. First parliament.
	1626.	Second parliament. Impeachment of Buckingham.
	1627.	Buckingham failed to relieve Rochelle.
	1628.	Third parliament. Petition of Right, 7th June. Buckingham assassinated by Felton at Portsmouth.
	1629.	Third parliament dissolved.
	1637.	Trial of John Hampden for refusing to pay ship-money.
	1638.	The National Covenant signed in Scotland.
	1639.	War with the Scots.
	1640.	Session of the Short Parliament, 13th April to 5th May. The Long Parliament met, 3d November.
	1641.	Impeachment and execution of the Earl of Strafford. Irish rebellion. The Grand Remonstrance.
	1642.	Attempt of the king to arrest the five

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
		members. Civil War commenced. Battle of Edgehill.
	1643.	Hampden killed at Chalgrove Field. First battle of Newbury. Death of Lord Falkland. Solemn League and Covenant signed at Westminster, 22d September.
	1644.	Scottish army crossed the Border, January. Battle of Marston Moor, 2d July, won chiefly by the energy of Cromwell. Second battle of Newbury, 27th October.
	1645.	Execution of Archbishop Laud. Battle of Naseby, 14th June. King's cause ruined.
	1646.	Flight of king from Oxford to the Scottish camp at Newark.
	1647.	King given up by Scots to the English Presbyterians.
	1648.	Colonel Pride 'purges' the House of Commons.
	1649.	Trial and execution of the king.

THE COMMON-WEALTH.....	}	1649.	The government of England declared a Commonwealth. Charles II. proclaimed at Edinburgh.
		1650.	Oliver Cromwell completed the subjugation of Ireland. Invaded Scotland, and gained battle of Dunbar, 3d September.
		1651.	Charles II. crowned at Scone. He invaded England, and was defeated at battle of Worcester by Cromwell, 3d September. Charles escaped to France.
		1652.	Dutch war.
		1653.	Long parliament dissolved by Cromwell, 20th April. Cromwell made Lord Protector.
		1654.	Peace concluded with the Dutch. The 'first parliament' of Cromwell met, 3d September.
		1655.	First parliament of Cromwell dissolved, 22d January. War with Spain. Capture of Jamaica.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
	1656.	Cromwell met his second parliament, 17th September.
	1658.	Cromwell dissolved his second parliament, 4th February. Capture of Dunkirk. Death of Cromwell. His son Richard declared Protector.
	1659.	Richard Cromwell resigned Protectorate.
	1660.	General Monk entered London. Convention parliament. Restoration of Charles II.

CHARLES II.....	1660.	The Restoration. Accession of Charles II.
	1662.	Act of Uniformity passed.
	1664.	Conventicle Act passed. Triennial Act repealed.
	1665.	War declared against the Dutch. Great plague of London.
	1666.	Great fire of London.
	1667.	De Ruyter burned the English shipping in the Medway. Treaty of Breda, 10th July. Fall of Clarendon. The Cabal ministry formed.
	1668.	Triple alliance between England, Sweden, and Holland.
	1670.	Secret Treaty of Dover concluded with France.
	1672.	War declared against Holland.
	1673.	The Test Act passed.
	1674.	Peace with Holland. Death of John Milton.
	1677.	William, Prince of Orange, married Mary, daughter of Duke of York, afterwards James II.
	1678.	Peace of Nimeguen. The Popish Plot.
	1679.	The Habeas Corpus Act passed, 26th May.
	1680.	Exclusion Bill lost in the House of Lords.
	1683.	Rye-house Plot. Execution of Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney.
	1685.	Death of Charles II.

JAMES II.....	1685.	Accession of James II. Invasions, defeat, and execution of Monmouth and Argyle.
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Monarch.	Date.	Events.
		Monmouth defeated at battle of Sedgemoor, 6th July. The Bloody Assizes.
	1686.	Penal laws suspended. First Declaration of Indulgence.
	1687.	Attacks of James upon Cambridge and Oxford.
	1688.	Second Declaration of Indulgence. Trial of the Seven Bishops. Invasion of the Prince of Orange. Flight and abdication of James II. Revolution.
WILLIAM III. } MARY II..... }	1689.	Accession of William and Mary. Declaration of Rights. War declared against France. Battle of Killiecrankie, and death of Dundee, 27th July. Relief of Londonderry, 28th July.
	1690.	Battle of the Boyne, 1st July. Defeat and flight of James II.
	1691.	Surrender of Limerick. End of the Revolution.
	1692.	Massacre of Glencoe. Naval victory off La Hogue. Battle of Steinkirk; William defeated.
	1693.	Battle of Landen; same result.
	1694.	Bill for Triennial Parliaments passed. Death of Queen Mary.
WILLIAM III....	1694.	William sole ruler.
	1695.	Siege of Namur; taken by William, 5th September.
	1697.	Treaty of Ryswick, 20th September.
	1701.	Act of Settlement. Death of James II. The Grand Alliance. Commencement of the War of Spanish Succession.
	1702.	Death of William III.
ANNE.....	1702.	Accession of Anne. War of the Spanish Succession continued. Marlborough appointed captain-general of allies.
	1704.	Gibraltar taken, 23d July. Battle of Blenheim, 13th August; first great victory gained by Marlborough.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
	1706.	Battle of Ramillies; Marlborough victorious.
	1707.	Union with Scotland. Battle of Almanza, 24th April.
	1708.	Battle of Oudenarde; Marlborough victorious.
	1709.	Battle of Malplaquet; Marlborough victorious.
	1710.	Trial of Sacheverell. Fall of the Whig Ministry.
	1711.	Harley made Lord-treasurer.
	1712.	Marlborough replaced by Ormond.
	1713.	Treaty of Utrecht, 11th April.
	1714.	Death of Queen Anne.

VII. HANOVERIAN LINE, 1714—

GEORGE I.....	1714.	Accession of George I.
	1715.	Impeachment of Oxford, Bolingbroke, and Ormond. Riot Act revived. Stuart flag raised at Braemar, 6th September. Mar defeated by Argyle at Sheriffmuir, 13th November. Old Pretender landed at Peterhead, 22d December.
	1716.	Pretender escaped to France, 4th February. Septennial Act passed.
	1718.	Quadruple Alliance formed by England, France, Holland, and the Emperor. Spanish fleet defeated at Cape Passaro, by Sir George Byng, 18th August.
	1720.	Peace with Spain. South Sea Bubble.
	1721.	Walpole made prime-minister.
	1727.	Death of George I.

GEORGE II.....	1727.	Accession of George II.
	1729.	Treaty of Seville frees Britain from foreign war.
	1736.	Porteous riots in Edinburgh.
	1739.	War declared against Spain. Portobello taken by Admiral Vernon.
	1741.	Repulse of Vernon and Wentworth at

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
		Carthagera. Maria Theresa of Austria secured a treaty with England.
	1742.	Resignation of Walpole.
	1743.	Battle of Dettingen, 27th June; last appearance of an English king on the field of battle.
	1744.	France declared war against England.
	1745.	Battle of Fontenoy, 11th May. Young Pretender landed in Scotland, 25th July. Royal army defeated at Prestonpans, 21st September. Pretender advanced to Derby; unsuccessful; commenced northward retreat, 6th December.
	1746.	Battle of Culloden, 16th April. Pretender defeated, and Stuart cause ruined.
	1748.	Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (October).
	1751.	Death of Frederick, Prince of Wales.
	1752.	Reformation of the Calendar; 3d September being reckoned as 14th September.
	1756.	Seven Years' War commenced. Minorca captured by the French.
	1757.	Admiral Byng shot. Battle of Plassey, 23d June. Pitt's first administration. Convention of Closter-seven.
	1759.	Battle of Minden, 31st July. Quebec taken by General Wolfe, who fell at the moment of victory, 13th September.
	1760.	Canada conquered. Death of George II.

GEORGE III....	1760.	Accession of George III.
	1761.	The Family Compact between France, Spain, and Naples.
	1762.	Lord Bute prime-minister. War with Spain.
	1763.	End of Seven Years' War. Resignation of Bute. Grenville prime-minister. Arrest of John Wilkes of the <i>North Briton</i> .
	1765.	Stamp Act passed, 22d March. Formation of Rockingham ministry.
	1766.	Repeal of Stamp Act. Resignation of Rockingham. Pitt, created Earl of

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
		Chatham, joined Duke of Grafton in forming the Mosaic Ministry.
	1767.	Act passed to levy a tax on tea, &c. in American colonies.
	1768.	Resignation of Chatham.
	1769.	Letters of Junius first appeared, generally ascribed to Sir Philip Francis. American taxes repealed, except that on tea.
	1770.	Grafton resigned, and Lord North became premier.
	1773.	Outbreak at Boston, 18th December.
	1775.	Commencement of American War of Independence. Battles of Lexington and Bunker's Hill.
	1776.	Declaration of American Independence, 4th July.
	1777.	Capitulation of Saratoga, 17th October.
	1778.	Alliance between America and France. Death of Lord Chatham, 11th May.
	1779.	War with Spain.
	1780.	The Gordon riots. Rodney's victory off Cape St Vincent, 16th January.
	1781.	Capitulation of Cornwallis, 29th October. End of American War.
	1782.	Resignation of Lord North. Second Rockingham ministry, 30th March. Shelburne ministry, with Pitt as Chancellor of Exchequer, formed 10th July. Independence of the American States acknowledged, 5th December.
	1783.	Peace of Versailles. Pitt became prime-minister.
	1784.	Cartwright invents the power-loom.
	1788.	Trial of Warren Hastings commenced, 12th February.
	1789.	Outbreak of the French Revolution.
	1793.	War declared against the French Convention.
	1794.	Victory of Lord Howe in the English Channel, 1st June.
	1797.	Victory of Jervis off Cape St Vincent, 14th

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
	February.	Admiral Duncan's victory at Camperdown, 11th October.
	1798.	Irish Rebellion. Battle of the Nile, 1st August.
	1800.	Union with Ireland.
	1801.	Legislative union of England and Ireland takes effect, 1st January. Resignation of Pitt. Addington premier. Battle of Alexandria, 21st March. Battle of Copenhagen, 2d April.
	1802.	Peace of Amiens. Bonaparte consul for life.
	1803.	War renewed between England and France.
	1804.	Pitt's second administration. Napoleon made emperor.
	1805.	Battle of Trafalgar; victory and death of Nelson, 21st October.
	1806.	Death of Pitt. Lord Grenville premier. Death of Fox. 'Berlin Decree.'
	1807.	Duke of Portland premier. Bombardment of Copenhagen, 2d September.
	1808.	Commencement of Peninsular War.
	1809.	Battle of Corunna, 16th January. Victory and death of Sir John Moore. Sir Arthur Wellesley made Commander-in-chief in Peninsula. French beaten at Talavera, 28th July. Failure of Walcheren expedition. Mr Perceval premier.
	1810.	Lines of Torres Vedras occupied by Wellington during winter.
	1811.	The Regency. French beaten at Fuentes d'Onoro, 5th May, and Albuera, 16th May.
	1812.	Mr Perceval assassinated. Lord Liverpool premier. Capture of Ciudad Rodrigo, 19th January, and Badajoz, 6th April. United States declared war against England, 18th June. French beaten at Salamanca, 22d July. Wellington entered Madrid, 12th August.
	1813.	French beaten at Vitoria, 21st June. Wellington entered France.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
	1814.	Crowning victory of Peninsular War at Toulouse, 10th April. Abdication of Napoleon at Fontainebleau. Peace with United States. Treaty of Ghent.
	1815.	Napoleon returned to France. Battle of Waterloo, 18th June. Second abdication of Napoleon. Treaty of Paris, 20th November.
	1816.	Lord Exmouth bombarded Algiers, 27th August.
	1817.	Death of the Princess Charlotte, 6th November.
	1819.	Birth of Queen Victoria, 24th May.
	1820.	Death of George III. 29th January.

- GEORGE IV.....1820. Accession of George IV. Trial of Queen Caroline.
1821. Death of Queen Caroline, 7th August.
1827. Canning prime-minister, 10th April. Death of Canning, 8th August. Lord Goderich premier. Battle of Navarino, 28th October, and establishment of Greek independence.
1828. Duke of Wellington premier. Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.
- † 1829. Catholic Relief Bill passed.
1830. Death of George IV. 26th June.

- WILLIAM IV...1830. Accession of William IV. Duke of Wellington resigned. Earl Grey became premier. Liverpool and Manchester Railway opened.
- † 1832. Reform Bill passed.
- † 1833. Abolition of slavery.
1834. The first Melbourne ministry, August.
† New Poor-law. The first Peel ministry, 10th December.
1835. Second Melbourne ministry, April. * Municipal Reform Bill passed, 9th September.
1837. Death of William IV. 20th June.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
VICTORIA.....	1837.	Accession of Victoria. Hanover separated from British crown. Rebellion in Canada.
	1838.	Chartist rising.
	1839.	Commencement of first Chinese War. Afghan war. Chartist rising crushed.
	1840.	Marriage of the Queen, 10th February.
	1841.	Anti-Corn-Law League formed. Second Peel administration, September. Prince of Wales born, 9th November.
	1842.	Peace with China. British flag planted in Cabul.
	1846.	Repeal of Corn Laws, 26th June. Resignation of Peel. Lord John Russell premier.
	1849.	Repeal of Navigation Laws.
	1850.	Death of Sir Robert Peel.
	1851.	The Crystal Palace Exhibition.
	1852.	First Derby Ministry formed, February. Death of Wellington, 14th September. Aberdeen ministry formed, December.
	1853.	War between Russia and Turkey.
	1854.	England and France declared war against Russia. Battle of the Alma, 20th September. Battle of Inkermann, 5th November.
	1855.	Resignation of Lord Aberdeen. Lord Palmerston became premier. Fall of Sebastopol, 8th September.
	1856.	Peace with Russia. Treaty of Paris signed, 30th March. Second Chinese War commenced. War also in Persia.
	1857.	Indian mutiny. Outbreak at Meerut. Siege of Delhi, and massacre of Cawnpore. Rebellion quelled; peace ultimately restored by Sir Colin Campbell. Canton bombarded, 8th December.
	1858.	Second Derby ministry. Treaty of Tientsin, 26th June. Abolition of East India Company. Admission of Jews to parliament.
	1859.	Second Palmerston ministry formed, June.

Monarch.	Date.	Events.
	1860.	Third Chinese War. Peking entered by a French and English force.
	1861.	Death of Prince Albert, 14th December.
	1863.	Marriage of the Prince of Wales, 10th March. Death of Lords Clyde and Elgin.
	1865.	Death of Lord Palmerston, 18th October. Lord Russell becomes premier.
	1866.	Atlantic cable successfully laid, 27th July. Lord Derby becomes premier.
	1867.	Second Reform Bill passed. Dominion of Canada constituted.
	1868.	Abyssinian War. Magdala taken. Death of King Theodore. Release of captives. Disraeli becomes premier, 25th Feb., and is succeeded by Gladstone, 9th Dec.
	1869.	Disestablishment of the Irish Church.
	1870.	Education Act for England passed.
	1872.	Education Act for Scotland passed.
	1873.	Ashantee War.
	1874.	Continuation of Ashantee War. Capture of Coomassie. Marriage of the Duke of Edinburgh, 23d January. Formation of Conservative government under Disraeli.
	1876.	Adoption by the Queen of the title Empress of India.
	1878.	War with Afghanistan. Failure of the City of Glasgow Bank, and severe commercial depression. Opening of the Tay Bridge, 31st May.
	1879.	Zulu War. Peace concluded with Afghanistan and the Zulu chiefs.

THE END.

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